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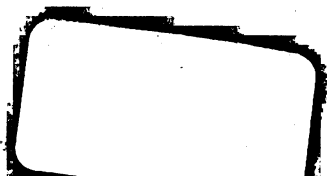
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PUNCTUATION

*WITH CHAPTERS ON
HYPHENIZATION, CAPITALIZATION,
AND SPELLING*

BY

F. HORACE TEALL

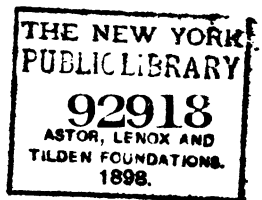
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NEW YORK
HARVARD
UNIVERSITY

NEW YORK
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY

1897^c 21



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PREFACE.

A SWEEPING criticism uttered by Goold Brown, in writing about capitalization, expresses only a little too strongly the feeling, almost of despair, arising from a search for a reasonable and consistent treatise on punctuation. After quoting from a certain grammarian a nonsensical assertion about proper names, Brown says: "Nor do the remarks of this author, or those of any other that I am acquainted with, remove any part of the difficulty." This could not truthfully be said about punctuation in general, for in many particulars all writers agree, so far as rules are concerned; but their works commonly show practice antagonistic to some of their own rules.

A search made by the author failed to dis-

close a work that is worthy of unqualified recommendation, for which he has often been asked. Some writings on punctuation are better than others, but the best seemed not yet to have been made; and this is why a new book on the subject was undertaken.

G. P. Quackenbos, in his "Advanced Course of Composition and Rhetoric," says, truly: "Punctuation is entirely independent of elocution. Its primary object is to bring out the writer's meaning, and so far only is it an aid to the reader. Rhetorical pauses occur as frequently where points are not found as where they are; and for a learner to depend for these on commas and semicolons would effectually prevent his becoming a good reader, just as the use of such marks wherever a cessation of the voice is required would completely obscure a writer's meaning. This may be seen by comparing a passage properly punctuated with the same passage punctuated as its delivery would require.

"PROPERLY PUNCTUATED. The people of the United States have justly supposed that the policy of protecting

their industry against foreign legislation and foreign industry was fully settled, not by a single act, but by repeated and deliberate acts of government, performed at distant and frequent intervals.

"PUNCTUATED FOR DELIVERY. The people of the United States, have justly supposed, that the policy, of protecting their industry, against foreign legislation and foreign industry, was fully settled ; not, by a single act ; but, by repeated and deliberate acts of government, performed, at distant and frequent intervals.

"From a paragraph punctuated like the last, little meaning can be gathered."

The objection against so-called rhetorical pointing is sound, even though we are not convinced that a good speaker would make all the pauses indicated. The example is a good one of twenty-five words in succession that will not properly admit a comma, although a speaker's voice would not be sustained all through their delivery without a break.

Conflict between rules and practice is found in every work on punctuation known to the author, and it seems to arise in each instance from an effort to particularize each and every possible class of expression under a

special rule. No one has ever succeeded in making such a system clear enough to work as an effectual guide in every possible case of doubt, and probably it can not be done.

The effort in this treatise has been to reduce the number of actual rules to the fewest possible, even where such treatment involved the rejection of many rules that are not only good, but are fully understood by every one who knows formally anything about punctuation. Principles have been considered as most important, and the rules given as such are really concise statements of principle, excepting a few that it seemed impossible to reduce to that basis, as in the case of the period. Much detail that other punctuators have subjected to special rules thus becomes herein mere exemplification under general rules.

The author's thanks are due to the Inland Printer Company of Chicago for kind permission to use in this book much matter that he wrote for their magazine, and which they first published.

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PUNCTUATION.

CHAPTER I.

THE COMMA.

RULE.—Insert a comma after each slightest break of connection in the grammatical construction of a clause or sentence, but not where the words are closely connected in sense.

When there is no break in sense no comma should be used, unless necessary for clearness of expression.

It is seldom necessary to use such an exceptional comma.

Of course this rule is very indefinite, as any sweeping rule must be. It is only because there are so many circumstances of detail, differing, however, merely in the nature of the words grouped, that so many rules have been made. This one gives the real occasion for the use of a comma in every instance, from

the mere separation of two clauses in one sentence, each of which might be made into a complete sentence, to those cases that are commonly classed under a rule directing the use of a comma every time a certain word is used. Nevertheless, all the numerous matters of detail are well worthy of explanation.

Any form of expression that turns aside from the continuous idea in any way necessitates pointing. It seems that exemplification will show the various proper uses of commas better than any long collection of rules would, especially as those rules would have to be, as they are in all other writings on the subject, mere statements of detail. The occasions for use of commas may be summarized, so as to meet the natural demand for specification, as follows:

1. When the conjunction is omitted between words, phrases, or clauses where it would ordinarily be used.

We are fearfully, wonderfully made.

2. Before and after a word or a group of words inserted independently, yet not consti-

tuting a true parenthesis, or so that the rest of the sentence would be grammatically complete without them.

Punctuation, like other matters, should be governed by common sense.

Commas, therefore, should not be used without reason.

Authors, not printers, should punctuate their writing.

All printers, however, should know how to punctuate.

3. Before a conjunction introducing an antithesis, or a clause in opposition to one preceding, as in changing from affirmative to negative.

Authors should punctuate carefully, and not leave it for the printers to do.

Printers may try to make a sentence clear by punctuation, but they can not so clarify one that is badly worded.

4. After a word or group of words independently beginning a sentence.

Fortunately, our best writers do not neglect such details.

Referring to your note of the 10th inst., I would say, etc.

Mr. Printer, be careful to follow copy.

5. After each but the last of a series of

words or phrases each of which has the same connection with what follows.

Writers, printers, and teachers should know our language better than they do.

Plain, well-punctuated, and otherwise carefully prepared manuscript is desirable.

Legibility of writing, careful punctuation, and strict attention to all details in preparation of copy should not be neglected by writers for the press.

It is a singular fact that many printers omit the comma before the last of such a series, though there is no plainer occasion for its use. Nearly all authorities prescribe such use of the comma, and the weight of custom, as well as common sense, favors it. In each example the three classes are separately considered, and omission of the second comma would unduly connect two of them, thus reducing the classes to two. This would be right if, for instance, writers were told something about printers and teachers. One author even goes so far as to assert that it is unphilosophical not to use a comma also after the last of a series of nominatives, just before the predi-

cate; as, "Writers, printers, and teachers, should know."

The writer believes that these specifications really cover every possible case of question, provided they be kept in mind and used for analogical determination. A book might easily be made with nothing but discussion of the various circumstances of the use of commas. Indeed, Gould Brown did write enough for a small book, but it was done by multiplying rules to such an extent that very few of them stand out really clear from others, and many of them are applicable only to specified expressions.

WRONG AND UNNECESSARY USE OF COMMAS.

Proper non-use of commas is often quite as important as their proper use. The following sentences, from books on punctuation, contain erroneous commas. Every enclosed comma in them should be omitted.

In 1826(,) an edition of this work(,) designed solely for printers(,) was first published.

Scarcely can a sentence be perused with satisfaction or interest(,) unless pointed with some degree of accuracy.

Even the author . . . not unfrequently puts his manuscript into the printer's hands(,) either destitute of grammatical points(,) or so badly punctuated as to create a needless loss of time for the compositor.

The smile of gayety may be assumed(,) while the heart aches within. [Given by a writer as an example of right use of the comma, though the continuity of the reading should be instantly perceived.]

Two words(,) belonging to the same part of speech(,) or used as such, when closely connected by one of the conjunctions *and*, *or*, *nor*, are not separated by a comma from each other.

Words or phrases contrasted with each other, or having a mutual relation to others that follow them(,) in the same clause, are separated by commas. [This is from the same book with the preceding example. Compare the use of the first comma in that with omission of the corresponding comma in this.]

The travellers set out early, and(,) before the close of the day(,) arrived at the destined place. [This sentence without the commas is suggestive of a wrong sense, but the commas make it worse in another way. Change of construction is the only real remedy, if any remedy is needed.]

Two correlative expressions(,) united by the conjunction *as* or *than*(,) are written without a point between them. But(,) when united by any other word than these

conjunctions(,) the correlative expressions are distinguished by a comma. [The last comma in this example would be used by many good punctuators; but the one after *but* is simply wrong. The present writer does not approve the rule expressed in the example.]

Words joined in pairs by conjunctions(,) or other particles(,) should be separated into pairs by commas.

Washington was born(,) Feb. 22, 1732, and died(,) Dec. 14, 1799.

One of the least explainable uses of a comma is a very common use, namely, after the salutation of a letter. Few letters are written without a number of sentences, and the subordination of a period or a number of periods to an introductory comma is not sensible. Much more unreasonable is a comma and a dash. A colon alone is the proper mark, because in its bearing on what follows the salutation is similar to a formal introduction.

In the following (from the same books) the enclosed commas are unnecessary, and many of them are erroneous:

On the whole, it will be found that the art of punctuation is founded rather on grammar than on rhetoric; that its chief aim is to unfold the meaning of sentences(,) with

the least trouble to the reader; and that it aids the delivery(,) only in so far as it tends to bring out the sense of the writer to the best advantage.

The comma may be omitted(,) after a period(,) in many cases where the foregoing rules would require it.

The types made us say(,) in our last(,) something about the "Dogs of the Seine"; we certainly wrote "Days of the League." We have no doubt that(,) in a large majority of cases of this sort, if the question between "the types" and "the pen" were left to a jury, they would . . . decide in favor of the types.

We remember a great many instances of this sort(,) in our own experience as a proof-reader.

The fact is(,) that men seldom succeed well in doing more than one thing at a time.

You see at once that a proof-reader(,) so beset(,) must needs have his wits about him.

Printers and proof-readers are to take for granted(,) that(,) in every work which falls under their supervision(,) the proper agreement between thought and expression has been effected by the author.

It is evident(,) that(,) in many cases(,) the use of the comma must depend upon taste.

The sense . . . would be liable to be misapprehended, or(,) at least(,) to be imperfectly understood.

The "copy" put into their [printers'] hands should be prepared with an accuracy which would preclude the ne-

cessity(,) on their part(,) of losing time by pondering over the manuscript to render it intelligible to the reading public.

One common rule is, "A simple sentence does not, in general, admit the comma." It is true as far as it goes, but that is not very far, because "in general" implies exceptions that are nowhere clearly defined, and because some people do not fully apprehend the difference between simple and compound sentences.

Typical simple sentences never properly admit a comma, unless we except the practice of placing a comma before a verb following a long nominative. We are not told how long the nominative should be, and the writer has seen very little in print that showed reasonable discrimination. The task of selecting all such possible occasions and marking them in this way must be exceedingly burdensome, and may better be left without formal prescription, to say the least. Such use of the comma will never be allowed by the present writer in his own work, and he believes that no one will ever be able to give a good reason

for using a comma after a nominative simply because many words are used.

Proper use of commas must depend upon the facts of expression rather than upon the simple or compound nature of the sentence.

We may exemplify the difference between close connection and the least disjuncture—*i. e.*, between places where a comma should not be and those where one should be used—as follows:

He went because he was told to go.

Brown's daughter Mary did it.

Smith's wife Jane testified against him.

The imperfect tense has three distinct forms corresponding to those of the present tense.—*Bullions.*

He did not go, because he was not told to.

Brown's daughter, Mary, did it.

Smith's wife, Jane, testified against him.

The imperfect tense has three distinct forms, corresponding to those of the present tense.

The first sentence is a mere assertion of a reason for action, while the fifth makes two assertions—that he did not go, and that it was so for a certain reason. The second and third sentences mean a particular one of a number

of daughters and wives, while the pointing in the sixth and seventh marks the fact that there is only one daughter and only one wife. Bullions's saying as cited in the first instance implies more than three forms, and the correctly pointed sentence restricts the number to three.

The following extract from a pamphlet by Francis A. Teall, A. M., gives further practical examples of common errors in the use and the omission of commas:

"The most important principle for practical use is to avoid overburdening matter with commas. Almost inexplicable confusion is sometimes introduced in the attempt to make the meaning of a sentence clear by pointing off every separable word or clause. The involved style of a writer is often to blame, but this can rarely be overcome by the multiplication of commas, and will in fact sometimes nearly disappear on the removal of a number of them. In the following examples, gathered from various sources (chiefly from standard books), the superfluous commas are enclosed in parentheses:

"1. 'It remains(,) perhaps(,) to be said(,) that, if any lesson at all(,) as to these delicate matters(,) is needed(,) in this period, it is not so much a lesson,' etc. 2. 'The obe-

dience is not due to the power of a right authority, but to the spirit of fear, and(,) therefore(,) is(,) in reality(,) no obedience at all.' 3. 'The patriot disturbances in Canada . . . awakened deep interest among the people of the United States(,) who lived adjacent to the frontier.' 4. 'Observers(,) who have recently investigated this point(,) do not all agree,' etc. 5. 'The wind did(,) in an instant(,) what man and steam together had failed to do in hours.' 6. 'All the cabin passengers(,) situated beyond the centre of the boat(,) were saved.' 7. 'No other writer has depicted(,) with so much art or so much accuracy(,) the habits, the manners,' etc. 8. 'If it shall give satisfaction to those who have(,) in any way(,) befriended it, the author will feel,' etc. 9. 'Formed(,) or consisting of(,) clay.' 10. 'The subject [witchcraft] grew interesting; and, to examine Sarah Cloyce and Elizabeth Proctor, the deputy governōr(,) and five other magistrates(,) went to Salem.' 11. 'The Lusitanians(,) who had not left their home(,) rosē as a man,' etc. 12. 'Vague reports . . . had preceded him to Washington, and his Mississippi friends(,) who chanced to be at the capital(,) were not backward to make their boast of him.' 13. 'Our faith has acquired a new vigor(,) and a clearer vision.' 14. 'In 1819(,) he removed to Cambridge.' 15. 'Doré was born at Strasburg(,) in 1832, and labors,' etc. 16. 'We should never apply dry compresses, charpie, or wadding(,) to the wound.' 17. '—to stand idle, to look, act, or think(,) in a leisurely way.' 18. '—portraits taken

from the farmers, schoolmasters, and peasantry(.) of the neighborhood.' 19. '—gladly welcomed painters of Flanders, Holland, and Spain(.) to their shores.'

"In all these cases the clauses between or following the enclosed commas are so closely connected grammatically with the immediately preceding words or phrases that they should be read without a perceptible pause, or with only a slight one for breath, without change of voice. Some of the commas would grossly pervert the meaning if strictly construed. Thus, from No. 3 it would appear that the people of the United States in general lived adjacent to the frontier; from No. 4, that all observers have recently investigated the point in question; from No. 6, that all the cabin passengers were so situated that they were saved, whereas it is only meant that a certain small proportion of them were saved; from No. 10 (Bancroft), that somebody whose name is accidentally omitted went to Salem 'to examine Sarah Cloyce and Elizabeth Proctor, the deputy governor, and five other magistrates'; from No. 11, that none of the Lusitanians had left their home, whereas it was the slaughter by the Romans of a great number of them who *had* left their home that caused the uprising. It would seem that this is so obvious a fault as to hardly need to be pointed out; but it is really one of constant occurrence, in every species of publication.

"Writers and printers are frequently led into the mis-

use or misplacing of commas by a form of expression which is often employed parenthetically or adverbially, but which is not so in the case in hand, or the proper beginning of which is overlooked ; as, 'Some(,) he will find(,) maintaining that, though it must have been a natural body,' etc. ; 'In 1788 Charles III. was succeeded by Charles IV., and the new king(,) being a true Spaniard, the reaction began' ('and, the new king being,' etc.) ; the Alei 'reaches Novo Aleish, where its S. bank(,) being composed of porphyry mountains, the river bends to the N. E.' ('where, its S. bank being,' etc.) ; 'There is no need to describe what passed between us ; it ended(,) as all my other attempts . . . had ended' (full stop).

"Commas are frequently omitted, and in certain positions very generally, where the sense and correct reading require a pause. In the following examples such commas, omitted in the works from which they were taken, are enclosed in brackets :

"1. 'The modes of thought[,] and the types of character which those modes produce[,] are essentially and universally transformed.' 2. 'Taken by itself[,] this doctrine could have no effect whatever ; indeed[,] it would amount to nothing but a verbal proposition.' 3. 'Far below[,] the little stream of the Oder foamed over the rocks.' 4. 'When the day returned[,] the Professor, the Artist[,] and I rowed to within a hundred yards of the shore.' 5. 'Proceeding into the interior of India[,] they passed through

Belgaum.' 6. 'If Loring is defeated in the Sixth District[,] it can be borne.'

"In No. 3 the reader naturally enunciates 'the little stream of the Oder' as in the objective case after 'below'; but there he comes to a predicate which compels him to go back and read differently. In No. 4 it appears that 'the day returned the Professor,' and then 'the Artist and I rowed,' etc."

CHAPTER II.

THE SEMICOLON.

RULE.—A semicolon should be used after a clause when the break in sense is too distinct to use merely a comma, and not sufficient for a period.

It will be seen that this rule, like that given for the comma, is very general. It is purposely so. No rule or set of rules could be made, no matter how much detailed, so that all people would apply them with the same effect in every instance. Rules may be made and carried out by all the workers in a single printing-office, but that office must be counted as a unit in any comparison.

The various occasions for using the semicolon are as follows :

1. After each clause in a sentence when the clauses, or some of them, contain commas.

Writers should know how to punctuate, and should do it carefully ; for they alone can always be sure, with proper care, that the sense is not perverted by wrong pointing.

Benjamin Drew says, in "Pens and Types": "Our school-books used to tell us that at the period we should stop long enough to count four ; at the colon, three ; at the semicolon, two ; at the comma, one."

The following officers were elected : John Smith, President ; William Brown, Vice-President ; Samuel Jones, Secretary ; and Thomas Gray, Treasurer.

"Mr. Rice's only near relatives are William B. Rice, an uncle, of No. 7 West Sixteenth street ; Elizabeth H. Guild, an aunt, of Boston ; and two aunts, Mrs. Bamuelos and Mrs. Sartiges, who are in Europe."

In some way the notion has become very common that in a series like those of the last two examples the comma is the proper point to use before the conjunction introducing the last of the series. The main reason for using the semicolon is that the break is too decided for the comma, corresponding exactly to the others for which semicolons are used. Another reason is that by using the semicolon we avoid subordinating one comma to another—something that can not always be es-

caped, but which should happen as seldom as possible.

2. After a clause that could stand as a complete sentence, but is too closely connected with the following clause to be so written.

We do not want precepts so much as patterns; an example is the softest and least invidious way of commanding.

Everything grows old ; everything passes away ; everything disappears.

There is good for the good ; there is virtue for the faithful ; there is victory for the valiant ; there is spirituality for the spiritual.

When a writer punctuates his matter reasonably, if he uses the right words, he will be understood accordingly ; if his right words are wrongly punctuated their meaning may be perverted ; if he leaves punctuation to the printer he can not always be sure that it will show the sense intended.

3. Before a conjunction introducing the last clause of a sentence like those just given.

The epic poem recites the exploits of a hero ; tragedy represents a disastrous event ; comedy ridicules the vices and follies of mankind ; pastoral poetry describes rural life ; and elegy displays the tender emotions of the heart.

An author may write very carefully ; he may use the clearest language, and make his manuscript conform in every detail to what he desires to have in print ; but he can not be sure of having everything right in the print unless he reads it in proof with equal care.

As in the case of the comma, too many rules have been made for the use of semicolons, and one bad result is shown in rules accompanied by examples of the same construction but differing punctuation, two examples being given in one book as follows : "The value of a maxim depends on four things: the correctness of the principle it embodies; the subject to which it relates; the extent of its application; and the ease with which it may be practically carried out." "There are three genders; the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter."

It will be seen readily that the colon of the first example and the semicolon of the second follow similar introductory clauses, and it should be admitted that that is a good reason for using the same mark in each; and the prevalent practice, though not universal (as it

might well be), is to use a dash in such a sentence. This use of the semicolon is not common, and it is not right, because the construction of the sentence affords no ground for any but the most arbitrary rule in support of it.

Each objective phrase in the first example is an indivisible element in the sentence, just the same in its bearing on punctuation as the single-word objectives in the other example; there is no possibility of punctuation within any one of them, and so the end of each phrase presents the slightest possible break of continuity, which, as we have seen, should be pointed with a comma.

Our preceding bit of criticism is suggested by the fact that some of the old rules are rejected in this treatise, and that no better way to account for the rejection was thought of. Another misuse of the semicolon may well be mentioned. It is seen in the following sentence: "We are glad to see that Dr. William Smart of the University of Glasgow has published a collection of his essays; the title of his volume being 'Studies in Economics.' "

A reason is apparent for this use of the semicolon, but it is not a good one. It would be the best of reasons for making a new sentence, "The title of his volume is," etc., the latter statement being properly separate from the first, and the title being no part of the occasion of gladness. The words in the sentence as printed necessitate the use of a comma instead of a semicolon, as they show the slightest possible break of connection. Many other sentences of similar construction are not amenable to correction except by substituting a comma for the semicolon.

CHAPTER III.

THE COLON.

RULE.—A colon should be used after a word or clause introductory to a speech, a letter, a statement of particulars, or a quotation of a long sentence or a number of sentences, and before a short quotation if that is made a separate paragraph.

Proper application of this rule, according to the intention of its maker, is exemplified a number of times in this chapter. Improper application of it, or of any similar rule, is frequent in statements of particulars when the first part of the sentence is not formally introductory, as in the sentence, "Among those present were John Brown, Adam Smith, Charles Jones." No point should be used when the sense is uninterrupted, as it is here. If, however, the names are accompanied with other particulars, necessitating the use of semi-

colons in addition to the commas, a colon should be used after the verb; as, "Among those present were: John Brown, who made a speech; Adam Smith, with his wife and daughter; Charles Jones," etc.

A common use of the colon not distinctly covered by the rule here given, but arising from the same principle, is found in the stating of a place of publication and the name of the publisher, as in title-pages. Thus, "New York : D. Appleton & Company."

Most treatises on punctuation prescribe much more use of colons than is common in practice. Formerly the colon was much used after clauses held to be nearly but not quite full sentences, and the reason for such use is as good now as it ever was, but is not so commonly recognized. Some of the difference between former and present usage seems to arise from a difference in the construction of sentences.

Some of the rules made by the best writers are so vague in their expression, and especially so little different from rules for the use of the

semicolon, that they do not serve as unmistakable guides for practice. Possibly a little uncertainty as to exact distinctions may be unavoidable, as it not infrequently happens that there is no absolute choice of practice, so far as real principle is concerned.

Some sentences are better punctuated with a colon after a clause not connected closely with what follows, yet not sufficiently independent to be made a complete sentence; but such treatment must be left to individual decision, preferably that of the writer, because it is not amenable to fixed rule. Writers on punctuation have not, in their examples, clearly differentiated the colon and the semicolon uses, and they can not be so clearly differentiated that every student of the rules will apply them alike in all cases.

The commonest present use of the colon is that indicated in Wilson's rule that "a colon should be placed before a quotation, a speech, a course of reasoning, or a specification of articles or subjects, when formally introduced." Much unnecessary use of the colon probably

has its origin in the indefiniteness of this rule. No discrimination is made in it beyond the uncertain indication inherent in the word "formally."

Instances of this unnecessary use (often, it may truthfully be said, erroneous) are easily found, because of their frequency. A magazine article on "The Fastest Railroad Run Ever Made," happening to be the most convenient printed matter for reference at the moment of writing, gives the following example: "Whiting must be very near, and—but just as we began to fear that he had missed the station, the word came: 'Ready for Whiting!' and the response, 'Ready for Whiting!' A few short seconds of silence, and then: 'Now!'" Why the comma was used before one of the sayings quoted and colons before the others is beyond guessing, unless it is mere accident; but the comma is the right point in each instance.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PERIOD.

RULE I.—Use a period at the end of every sentence that is not a question or an exclamation.

RULE II.—Use a period after every abbreviation, and after every contraction that is not written with an apostrophe.

Wm. for *William* is commonly called an abbreviation, but is really a contraction. *Dept.* and *dep't* are two forms commonly used for *department*, and one as is good as the other. Roman numerals used as belonging to a series are commonly written with a period, being held to be abbreviations of ordinal words, as “William *I.*,” meaning “William *the First*,” and so read. (Read the remarks following these rules, for reasons in support of the practice indicated.)

RULE III.—A period is used before a decimal number, whether an integral number stands before it or not.

(See the remarks following.)

Considered merely as a punctuation-mark, the period might be dismissed with the bare assertion that it should be used at the end of every declarative or unexclamatory imperative sentence. That is its only use in punctuation strictly so called, as it does not in any other way point off one expression as separated from another.

Among other uses of the period, that which is most similar to the separation of sentences is the separation of whole numbers and decimals. Nothing could be more purely conventional than the indication of their fractional nature by prefixing to figures a period; yet no other conventional usage is more surely universal.

All decimal fractions are written in this way, and this is the first fact learned about decimals, and it is such a simple fact that no one should be able to forget it; but evidence

is not lacking that even some accountants do forget or ignore the true office of the point in this use.

In some advertisements in New York papers the figures of dollars with no cents are followed by a period, at the dictation of the advertisers. Could this arise in any other way than through misapprehension? Some compositors also, in dividing dollars and cents at the end of a line (something, by the way, that should not be allowed), keep the point with the dollars. Cents are decimal fractions of dollars, and the point belongs with them, and has no connection whatever with the dollars.

Some people have affected a differentiation between the decimal and other uses of the period by turning the point up to indicate a decimal, but it is doubtful whether this is ever really helpful. Such practice may have led to the notion, lately prominent, that it would be well to introduce different points to indicate different kinds of decimals. There are no different kinds of decimals; they are always really the same in their nature, though written

for different purposes. Practice is about evenly divided between the normal and the reversed position of the decimal point, and those who reverse it think there is clear gain in doing so. The gain seems impossible to prove, and practice is open to choice. Simplicity favors the normal position.

Writers on punctuation commonly say that a period must be used after every abbreviated word. This rule is too inclusive, if we pay any attention to the true sense of the words used in making a rule. *Abbreviated* means merely "shortened," and many words are shortened without using a period after them to mark this fact.

Printing-office technicality has changed the primary and true significance of the word *abbreviation*, making it apply to many forms that are really contractions. To printers an abbreviation is any shortened representative of a word after which a period is used. Thus, *Wm.* is counted an abbreviation, and so is *dept.* for "department," the latter as differentiated from *dep't*, which is called by printers a

contraction. As a matter of fact, *Will* for "William" is an abbreviation, though not technically so classed, and *dept.* and *Wm.* are contractions. Technicality can not alter the real fact that any mere clipping off of a part from the end is abbreviating, or the other fact that omitting an inner part and drawing the ends together is contracting. But this does not lessen the utility of the technical distinction.

Some of the abbreviations that are properly written without a period are the shortened representatives of names, as *Fred*, *Phil*, *Ed*, *Rob*, etc. They are rightly considered as merely familiar short forms, analogous to *Jim*, *Tom*, *Bob*, etc., which are not abbreviations.

One real abbreviation that recently has often been printed without a period is *cent.* for Latin "centum," as used in *per cent.* Nothing can alter the fact that it is an abbreviation, but those who choose to drop the point may claim the authority of Webster's International Dictionary, and will have no great lack of company in their practice.

Many people use the Latin word "per" with English words, but it is not proper, according to language principle, to do so. We should not say per year, but per annum or a year. We could not say "a cent" for per cent., because the expression needs to be distinguished as having the Latin meaning. Distinction is made in speech by using a representative of the Latin phrase, and distinction in written form, by means of a period, is just as necessary. *Per cent.* does not mean "for each thing called a cent," as the coin, for instance, but "in each hundred," and the word that means a hundred is *centum*, not *cent*. Of course we pronounce only the letters that are used, and not the whole word; but we do this in other cases also, as in saying "Co" for the abbreviation *Co.* for *Company* in the name of a firm. The period is very useful, and its omission is incorrect. These are the facts in the case, although the error is so common.

Some writers give a separate rule, "Use the period after initials." Such use is simply that of the rule we have been considering, as

initials are abbreviations. No separate rule is needed.

An article in a magazine has a rule, "The period is generally used after Roman numerals," and proceeds as follows: "It is not so used in the paging of prefaces, etc. In many modern works the period is omitted after the Roman numeral, as, William I made a mistake. The insertion or omission of a period in this connection is almost wholly a matter of printing-office style."

It is unfortunate that it has become so common to say of any practice that it is "almost wholly a matter of printing-office style." Nearly every matter of which this is said presents itself to different minds in different aspects, and that is why it is seldom justifiable to call either practice unqualifiedly erroneous.

"William I." means, and should be read, "William the First," and thus the numeral stands as an abbreviation for the ordinal word. Such is undoubtedly the reasoning that first led to the use of the period, and it is as good reasoning now as it ever was. No absolute proof

can be adduced, but it is almost a certainty that most writers and printers treat the numeral as an abbreviation, and use the period with it. On the contrary, those who adopt the other practice claim that such numerals are of the same nature as any others, especially those of a series, and hold that the period is useless. As in the case of *per cent.*, it would probably be futile to attempt arguing with those who reason in this wise. They are as well entitled as any others to have an opinion. Nevertheless, the fact remains that real principle first dictated the distinction between ordinal and cardinal numerals, though the dividing line is somewhat vague; and in the last analysis it is principle that dictates printing-office style.

The rule is good, even if some people will not follow it—"Use a period after ordinal numbers in Roman characters."

CHAPTER V.

QUESTIONS AND EXCLAMATIONS.

Every actual complete question should have an interrogation-mark after it, whether at the end of a sentence or not.

Every purely exclamatory expression should be followed by an exclamation-point.

This is a mere restatement of rules that are given in every treatise on punctuation, and which are taught in the schools from the very beginning. Evidence of this is found in questions often asked in the writer's own household by a child only seven years old, and he doubts not in many others. The child asks, "Is that a question or a statement?" Now, simple as this question really is, it is not uncommon to find in print a question ended with a period, or something that is not actually a question with an interrogation-mark.

We may conclude from this that more care is needed, especially on the part of proof-readers; since it can not be ignorance of universal rules that produces the bad result, that result must be due to carelessness.

Proof-readers are not the only persons who are not quite as careful—or perhaps it would be better to say thoughtful—as they should be. Authors are probably more careless or thoughtless as to such small detail than any others concerned in the production of printed matter, and they sometimes write in such a way that their real intention as to questioning, exclaiming, or merely asserting is uncertain unless they indicate it by punctuation.

One rule has been generally considered sufficient for the use of the interrogation-point, but writers on punctuation accompany their rule with some remarks embodying a few subordinate rules. The points for discrimination are so simple that it is remarkable that the discriminations are not always made instinctively. Some part of this difficulty may arise from obscurity in the wording of the rule.

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One author states his rule as follows: "An interrogation-point must be placed after every interrogative sentence, member, or clause."

Another says: "An interrogative mark is placed at the termination of every question, whether it requires an answer, or, though in its nature assertive, is put, for the sake of emphasis, in an interrogative form." This writer also says: "In some cases it is difficult to distinguish the difference between an interrogative and an exclamatory sentence. As a general rule, however, it may be observed that after words in which an answer is implied, or to which one is expected to be given, the note of interrogation is added; and after those, though apparently denoting inquiry, where no answer is involved or intended, the note of exclamation is the proper and distinctive mark. If the writer of such passages has a clear conception of his own meaning, he can be at no loss which of the points should be used; but if the language is ambiguous, and requires to be punctuated by a printer or an editor, either

of the marks may, under the circumstances, be regarded as admissible."

Both of the rules quoted are subject to a slight misunderstanding, because of a little lack of thought in making them, especially the second, in its latter half. With adequate study of its intention, the long passage quoted is sufficiently clear; the one part of it that might be misleading is that which indicates the note of exclamation as the only point to be used when the sentence is not interrogatory. Of course the passage refers to the two kinds only, but there is another sort of sentence that should be considered, in which neither of the two marks should be used—the merely assertive sentence, which should have a period.

The writer last quoted gives evidence of the fact that people need to cultivate their power of discrimination in distinguishing kinds of sentences. He gives as an example the sentence: "How can he exalt his thoughts to anything great or noble who only believes that, after a short term on the stage of existence, he is to sink into oblivion, and to lose his con-

sciousness forever?" He says this is assertive in its meaning, but interrogative in its structure or form. As a matter of fact, it is purely interrogative in every way, although it may be said to imply an assertion that some person has a certain belief, but incidentally only, and not at all so as to make its real meaning assertive.

It is a fact of practice that many purely assertive sentences are printed as questions, and many real questions are printed without an interrogation-point. Instances might be cited almost innumera-ly from ordinarily well-made books, but a few will suffice, from a book that happens to be the last one looked at before writing. Here are some assertions found in it as questions, which should be impossible, unless as the merest infrequent accident: "What an idle effort, one might say, for a recalcitrant priest to raise his voice in defiance of so powerful and widely established an authority?" "How aptly the clever epigram of the German philosopher describes the dissensions and confusion in the various Protes-

tant bodies to-day?" "In works of charity, what a striking contrast there is in the histories of the Catholic and the Protestant churches? How barren the one and how fruitful is the other in this class of Christian work?"

These are plainly exclamatory sentences, affording no real excuse for representing them as questions. Probably they were printed as questions because they contain words that are called interrogative pronouns. Grammarians are responsible for much confusion and misunderstanding through such fallacious and unnecessary classifications. The so-called interrogative pronouns are used as frequently in assertion as they are in interrogation, and the grammar of the language would have been better understood without the classifying term "interrogative pronoun." Such words would be just as truly classed if they were called exclamatory pronouns.

Notwithstanding the fact that a noted authority on punctuation says it is not always easy to distinguish between questions and ex-

clamations, the assertion may be confidently made that the difficulty is not real, but is to be accounted for only as the result of common carelessness or thoughtlessness.

Every one should have the distinction between questions, exclamations, and mere assertions so thoroughly under command that it would be impossible to mistake them, either in the work of writing or in that of printing what has been written.

Occasions for the use of the exclamation-point arise:

1. After an ejaculatory word used independently; as, "Ah!" "Bosh!" "Bravo!"

2. After a sentence expressing surprise, enthusiasm, or something similar; as, "How beautiful!" "You don't say so!" "Give me liberty, or give me death!"

3. At the end of a sentence beginning with an interjection; as, "Alas, that such things should be!"

4. After a clause of invocation or command; as, "Tremble, O man! whosoever thou art."
"Charge, Chester, charge!"

CHAPTER VI.

THE DASH.

RULE.—The dash is used to denote a sudden change in the construction, a suspension of the sense, an unexpected transition in the sentiment, a sudden interruption, or hesitation in speaking.

Examples seem hardly necessary here, especially as the main use of the dash is exemplified in our text, and the circumstances of all the items of the rule are so similar that one use may be taken as illustrative of all.

One use not fully covered by the rule, because it is not properly a punctuating use, is the insertion of a dash in place of something omitted, as in a date, 18—, for instance. A shorter dash is used between figures in place of the word “to,” as in “1890—’96.” A longer dash should be used in place of a longer omission, as ——— for a name, etc.

Another instance not explicitly covered by the rule is the breaking short of a sentence, as in speaking, where practice varies as to the length of the dash, though what printers call a "two-em" dash (—) is most commonly used.

Writers on punctuation generally provide for—if they do not actually prescribe—certain uses which are not nearly universal in practice, and of which some are absolutely unnecessary, though they can not truthfully be called erroneous. This is especially true with reference to using a dash and one of the other punctuation-marks together.

All punctuators whose work is known to the present writer give definite rules for such use, so worded as to indicate that they do not admit the correctness of using the dash alone in the instances covered by their rules. No writer, though, has stated a sufficient reason for using a dash and any other point together.

One writer says: "The dash has its legitimate uses, and performs a part in which no other point can properly take its place; but

it must not be allowed to overstep its proper limits."

The use of a dash after another point "oversteps the proper limits," if common sense is to determine the limits. It can not always be called wrong—because the practice is so common—but it certainly is unnecessary.

One of the rules given is this: "A dash may be used after other points, when a greater pause than they usually denote is required." This was written before it was so commonly acknowledged that the length of the pause was not the ultimate test of proper punctuation, although the same writer says, in the same book, that "points must be placed without reference to rhetorical pauses," and objects strongly to the old teaching as to length of pause for each point. It is this rule that dictates his practice when he says, "Under this rule, a dash is used in the following cases:—"

How can any one suppose that a longer pause is indicated here by the colon and dash than by a colon alone? As a matter of fact,

the dash adds nothing but an unsightly mark on the page, and is a clear instance of overstepping the limits.

If it is right to use a dash in addition to the colon in one such instance, it is right always; but no one uses it in all cases of the kind mentioned, and it is better never to do so.

Here is a rule from another text-book: "The dash may be used to denote a longer pause for elocutionary effect; as, 'Greece, Carthage, Rome—where are they?'" Elocutionary effect is probably always the reason for such construction of a sentence, instead of saying, "Where are Greece, Carthage, and Rome?" but the dash does not denote a longer pause for elocutionary effect.

Indeed, it often happens in the speaking of such a sentence that the pause where the dash occurs is not longer than any other, and the elocutionary effect is made by a rising inflection of the voice; the latter, in fact, is always the peculiar characteristic of such speaking, though it is often made more impressive by a

lengthy pause. The true reason for using the dash is found in the rule given in this writing as the only one necessary.

Here is another rule that is not good: "If a parenthetic clause is inserted where a comma is required in the principal sentence, a comma should be placed before each of the dashes enclosing such clause." An example is, "I should like to undertake the Stonyshire side of that estate,—it's in a dismal condition,—and set improvements on foot."

Preservation of the comma that is necessary in the "principal sentence" is the object of such practice, and has been considered ample justification. Nevertheless, it may be asserted positively that those who omit the commas in such cases are more reasonable than those who insert them. Both usages involve a departure from the normal punctuation—one provides two commas where the sentence should have only one, and the other omits even the one.

It is impossible of proof—it is a case of mere dogmatic assertion—that double point-

ing clarifies or in any way improves the expressions under consideration. It is evident that the other practice simplifies the form, and simplification is a widely—almost universally—acknowledged desideratum.

A reasonable way to preserve the comma in the particular instance quoted is not hard to find. Since the parenthetical clause is a true parenthesis, it is better to use the parenthesis-signs. Thus we should have the sentence, "I should like to undertake the Stonyshire side of the estate (it's in a dismal condition), and set improvements on foot."

A special example of misuse of the dash is the frequent practice of placing it after the salutation of a letter. Such practice is prescribed in many text-books, but no reason is or can be assigned for it. The practice that avoids dashes altogether is far better. In beginning a letter, if a name is written before the salutation a period should follow it, or should follow the address if one is included. After the salutation nothing but a colon should be used.

Some periodicals give the beginning of a communication thus: "To the Editor: Dear Sir:" and some, "To the Editor—Dear Sir:" The first is never right; the second is defensible if "To the Editor," etc., is not a separate line. "To the Editor. Dear Sir:" is better, and more frequent in actual practice. ✓

CHAPTER VII.

PARENTHESES AND BRACKETS.

THESE are marks of enclosure, the parenthesis-mark being curved and the bracket angular. While their use is differentiated in practice, its purpose is always based on the one principle of separating something inserted arbitrarily, so far as the context is concerned, and generally explanatory. It is only because of conventional distinction in the uses of the marks that we need separate rules for them.

While printers now use the word *parenthesis* almost exclusively with reference to the curved mark of enclosure, and commonly in the plural, in its rhetorical use it means the words enclosed; and as the latter is the true sense of the name, though the technicality is established beyond reasonable objection, it is well to

remember that fact as a guide to proper use of the marks.

A quaint passage from Puttenham's "Arte of English Poesie" is quoted in the Century Dictionary, which is a very clear definition of the rhetorical parenthesis, and shows an old use of brackets instead of quotation-marks. It is: "Your first figure of tollerable disorder is [Parenthesis] or by an English name the [Insertour], and is when ye will seeme, for larger information or some other purpose, to peece or graffe in the midst of your tale an vnnecessary parcell of speach." Thus parentheses are the curves used to enclose a parenthesis, but they are not needed in every case of parenthetic expression.

PARENTHESES.

RULE.—A word, phrase, clause, or sentence inserted where it has no connection in sense or construction, as for explanation, qualification, or any similar purpose, should be enclosed within marks of parenthesis.

I (the writer) think this a good rule.

St. Paul (because he found inserted explanations neces-

sary) used many parentheses (meaning the enclosures, not the marks).

“Where foresight and good morals exist (and do they not here?), the taxes do not stand in the way of an industrious man’s comforts.”

As in some instances there is no absolute choice between commas and parentheses, so also there is none between parentheses and dashes. Thus, Wilson’s second example under his rule for marks of parenthesis—“If we exercise right principles (and we can not have them unless we exercise them), they must be perpetually on the increase”—is just as well written, “If we exercise right principles—and we can not have them unless we exercise them—they must be perpetually on the increase.”

When the parenthesis is a complete sentence the preceding sentence should be closed with its appropriate mark, and similarly the parenthesis should be closed within the marks, and so should a parenthetical question or exclamation. No other circumstances call for or really justify the use of any point just before either of the marks of parenthesis.

This directly contradicts every preceding punctuator whose work is accessible at the time of writing, and such contradiction is necessary to a real understanding of many actual principles in language.

Before the evolution tending toward simplicity of form in language had set in, and before much real study of punctuation principles had been made, a multiplicity of points and marks was fashionable, that still survives in the work of those who have not progressed with the times.

Here we will cite an example from Wilson. He says that in certain cases, as when the parenthesis is a question or an exclamation, requiring the proper mark inside the curve, "the point required if there were no parenthesis is to be inserted before the first mark under consideration [the first curve], and that which belongs to the enclosed portion before the second ; as, ' While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellow-men, (and why should he not desire it ?) he disdains to receive their good-will by dishonorable means.' " The

comma in this example should follow the closing mark of parenthesis just as it does in other cases, and for the same reason that Wilson gives for the others, namely, that "it connects the parenthesis more closely with the preceding part of the sentence, to which it is usually most related."

BRACKETS.

RULE.—An insertion not merely disconnected, but having no effect upon the meaning of the context, should be enclosed within brackets.

Occasions for the use of brackets may be specified as follows :

1. Insertion of a parenthesis within a quotation of which it is not a part, as for correction, to supply missing words, etc.

"Were you on [the] deck of the steamer at [the time of] the collision?"

"He said you and me [I] were to go."

"He told you and I [me] to go."

2. Insertion of an added statement.

"You see, my dear Dan, how long I have been talking about myself. [*Some mention of private family affairs is*

here omitted.] My dear sir, these things give me real uneasiness," etc.

[This paragraph is given as quoted from "The Life of Dr. Goldsmith" in a book giving a rule for the use of brackets as shown in the quotation, and the enclosure is said to be an "explanation," but it is not an explanation. It does not explain anything; it merely tells something, that might or might not be told, according to choice. Many writers on the subject we are considering have called such extra statement explanation, but we fail to find any use of brackets with truly explanatory matter, which is usually a true parenthesis if inserted abruptly, unless it is like our examples above.]

3. Other insertions analogous to those already mentioned, as a direction in a play (often with only the first bracket), noting of applause or interruption in a speech, or (one mark only) before a word placed at the end of a short line above or beneath the line to which it belongs.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE APOSTROPHE, POSSESSIVES, QUOTATIONS.

THE Century Dictionary defines the word "apostrophe" first as "in grammar, the omission of one or more letters in a word," then as "the sign used to indicate such omission," and then as "the sign used for other purposes, especially as a concluding mark of quotation." Why two separate definitions were given for the sign is not obvious, since it is the same thing in all its uses; but the two together state these uses as far as mere dictionary purposes demand their statement, though not adequately for practical guidance, even with all the matter given in the dictionary and not here quoted. Our main purpose in quoting any of it is to show the original sense of the word as it was used in Greek, thus pointing

out the fact that the sign always properly indicates omission of something, except in its use as a quotation-mark.

RULE I.—Use an apostrophe in place of letters omitted within or at the beginning of a word, and at the end for mere shortening of sound.

Contraction is omission of an inner part and drawing together the remaining ends, as in *dep't* for *department*.

In dates the figures for the century are often omitted, as in '97 for 1897.

RULE II.—An apostrophe and an *s* show the singular possessive, and an apostrophe alone the regular plural possessive.

Adam's means "belonging to *Adam*," and *Adams's* should be written, and the extra syllable spoken, for "belonging to *Adams*." *Girls'* is right for more than one girl in the written possessive.

A former chapter treated of the use of the period to show abbreviation, and contractions were mentioned as marked by the use of the apostrophe. Every form of a word or phrase with letters omitted elsewhere than at the beginning or end is a contraction, because a beginning and an ending part are drawn to-

gether ; but the apostrophe is used to mark an abbreviation when the part it represents is either the beginning or the end, as in '*gainst* for *against*, *an'* for *and*.

Marshall T. Bigelow, in his "Handbook of Punctuation," says: "In all cases where two words are thus made into one syllable, a space should be left between the words, as though they were not abbreviated [he should have said contracted]. *Don't*, *can't*, *won't*, and *sha'n't*, however, are printed as single words." This is in accordance with the practice of many of the best printers, but the practice is by no means universal, as the unqualified statement quoted seems to assert that it is. Bigelow's book and John Wilson's are from the same press (though Bigelow's is later than Wilson's), and they differ in this respect, Bigelow instancing *I've*, *thou'rt*, *'t is*, *you'll*, etc., with a space, and Wilson *I've*, *thou'rt*, *'tis*, *you'll*, etc., without a space. Benjamin Drew's "Pens and Types," of later date than either of the others, omits the spaces. Alfred Ayres's "Verbalist" also omits the spaces. The present writer prefers

the closed forms in these cases, though he considers it as a matter of slight importance.

Many printers omit the apostrophe in dates given without the century, especially when two or more years are mentioned together, as 1880-90. Undoubtedly the better practice, however, is that which inserts the apostrophe, as 1880-'90.

The apostrophe is used in expressing the plural of a letter or a figure, as *a's*, *s's*, *p's* and *q's*, *9's*. A good reason for this may be found in the case of the letters, namely, that it serves to distinguish between such words as *as*, *is*, and the intended pluralizing. No such reason exists for using an apostrophe with figure plurals, since there is no possibility of mistaking the figure and *s* alone for anything but what is intended. Custom is the only standard in such a matter, and custom is divided in this case.

Nearly as many people now write figure plurals without an apostrophe as those who use it, and the lack of real need for it seems good reason for its omission. Such use

of the mark is purely arbitrary, since nothing is omitted, but the use is probably suggested by the fact that some such plurals if they could be spelled out would end with *es*, and thus the mark might be supposed to stand in place of a letter.

Grammarians differ as to the formation of the possessive case of nouns ending in *s*, and probably a majority drop the extra *s*. The only reason for doing so is a very weak one, namely, that it is more euphonious to avoid so much sibilation.

There is strong reason in favor of using the apostrophe and *s* in forming the singular possessive case in every instance except a few phrases, as "righteousness' sake," "conscience' sake," "goodness' sake," "Jesus' sake," that have become idioms of the language.

By adding a syllable in speech, and a letter for that syllable in writing, the fact is noted unmistakably that the word itself includes a terminal *s*, while otherwise the word or name is uncertain. Thus, if we say "Adamses" and write "Adams's," we know that the name is

“Adams”; otherwise we may not know that it is not “Adam.”

QUOTATION-MARKS.

RULE.—A direct quotation has two apostrophes or an apostrophe at the end.

Quotation-marks in English are inverted commas at the beginning and apostrophes at the end of the matter quoted. Commonly two of each are used, but some printers, mainly British, use only one.

A quotation within a quotation is marked by a single point at each end when the main quotation is marked doubly, and vice versa.

In the rare instances where it is necessary to use quotation-marks within a subordinate quotation the original marking should be repeated. Thus we would have, with extreme application of the principle, but carried out beyond its legitimate purpose and extent: “In the New Testament we have the following words: ‘Jesus answered the Jews, “Is it not written in your law—‘I said, “Ye are gods”’?”’” It will be seen that the marks

at the end serve to close each quotation in inverse order back to the beginning mark. The Bible itself is printed with a good avoidance of so many marks together; it does not use any of them. This is not advisable for general practice, but most of the subordinate marks may be omitted with advantage.

Not uncommonly the marks are omitted if the quotation is printed in any type or form differing from the text. Such practice led the makers of one large work into an amusing error. The work abounds with quotations printed in type smaller than the text and without quotation-marks. While the rule was to use the double marks, in the smaller type a single mark was used for subordinate quotation, thus really nullifying the rule, which properly contemplates such practice only when one set of marks is subordinate to another set.

Commonly titles of books are quoted, but sometimes they are printed in italics. At least one literary paper uses single marks for book-titles and double marks for quotation of actual

expressions. This is in keeping with the use of the single quotation-mark in instancing words in philological writings. Such uses are special, and must be specially indicated by writers or editors.

CHAPTER IX.

MARKS OF REFERENCE, ELISION, ETC.

REFERENCE to notes, especially when the notes are at the foot of a page, is commonly indicated by a series of marks used in the order here given :

1. Asterisk, or star (*).
2. Obelisk, or dagger (†).
3. Double obelisk, or double dagger (‡).
4. Section (§).
5. Parallel (||).
6. Paragraph (¶).

When more than six notes occur on a page the marks are doubled, or even trebled, for the seventh, etc., in order (**, etc.).

Such reference also is often made by the use of figures or letters called *superior* because they stand above the line of the text-letters. Superior letters are sometimes used through

the alphabet, which is then repeated (as in Bibles), but both letters and figures usually begin with the first (* or 1) on each page.

Other uses of these marks are as follows :

The asterisk is used in a few arbitrary ways, that need accompanying explanation, as in etymological statements to indicate that a word is assumed, without knowledge of its actual existence. (See *Elision*, *Emphasis*, below.)

The obelisk is used in dictionaries to indicate that a word or one of its senses is obsolete. It is also used in biographical and historical works of reference, before dates, to indicate the year of death. Occasionally it is found in ecclesiastical papers, instead of the cross, as with the signature of the Pope or other Roman Catholic dignitary.

The section-mark and the paragraph are used (the latter very seldom except in the Bible) to indicate divisions, as of a book, the division called a section often containing a number of paragraphs.

Superior figures are used in mathematics to indicate powers (as a^2 , meaning the square or second power of a , or a multiplied by a), and in a somewhat similar function in chemical formulas, though in the latter use *inferior* figures are more common. Superior letters are similarly used in mathematics.

Elision, or omission, is indicated as follows:

1. By a dash or a certain number of periods or asterisks for part of a word; as, B——n, B....n, or B****n, for Boston.

2. By a dash, three periods, or three asterisks for a whole word. The dash is frequently used in place of a name and instead of a profane word.

3. By periods or asterisks where a number of words, or even sentences, are omitted. Three marks of either kind is the commonest number, though even a whole line of them may be used, as in place of a line or lines of poetry.

4. By a pair of inverted commas placed

beneath a word or words, indicating that the matter under which they stand is to be read also in the line containing the marks. Most of the books on punctuation say that the commas in such use are not inverted, but now at least inversion is more frequent in practice.

5. By an apostrophe or (not so commonly) an inverted comma in names like *M'Laughlin*, *O'Brien*.

Connection of words in different lines is indicated by a brace (—), placed vertically, with the point in the centre turned away from the braced lines (often said to be *bracketed*). The brace is also used in horizontal position to connect columns of figures.

Emphasis is imparted to special matter, mostly in advertisements, by prefixing one of the two marks or the abbreviation following:

1. The *index* (☞), sometimes called a *hand* or *fist*.

2. The *asterism*, or *stars* (*.*), generally with the central asterisk inverted.

N. B., for *nota bene*, note well, take notice.

Leaders are marks leading from one part to another in a line. Most frequently they are dots or periods, but sometimes hyphens are used.

Accents.—There are only three marks that are used to note accentuation—the *acute* (´), the *grave* (`), and the *circumflex* (^ or ~). All others are properly called diacritics, or diacritical marks, not accents. No regular use of accents, as such, is found in English except the marking of a syllable, in indicating pronunciation, by means of the acute accent, to show that the marked syllable is the most emphatic one in the word.

Other uses of these marks are strictly diacritical; but, as the marks are generically called accents, their other uses are here given:

1. In poetry an accent is used (practice being divided between the acute and the grave) to indicate a separate syllable where none is usually made, as in *veiled* or *veild*, to be pronounced as two syllables instead of one.

2. In mathematics the acute accent is used

in series of notation, one after the first number, two after the second, etc.; as, a' (a prime or first), a'' (a second), a''' (a third).

3. The acute accent is used as in paragraph 2 to indicate minutes (') and seconds (''), as of latitude and longitude; as, $30^{\circ} 20' 10''$, thirty degrees, twenty minutes, ten seconds.

4. In linear measurement feet are indicated by one acute accent, inches by two accents, and lines by three; as, $2' 10'' 5'''$, two feet, ten inches, five lines.

5. In works on elocution the acute accent indicates a rising inflection, the grave marks the place for a falling inflection, and the circumflex denotes a compound or waving inflection.

Diacritics, or diacritical marks, are used to indicate distinctions of sound, as follows:

1. The *diæresis*, placed over the second of two vowels together, indicates their separate pronunciation.

2. The *macron*, or *long* ($\bar{}$), marks the long sound of a vowel, as in *fāte*, *māte*, etc.

3. The *breve*, or *short* (˘), marks the short sound of a vowel, as in *făť*, *měť*, etc.

4. The *cedilla* (ç) indicates the soft sound of *c*, as in *façade*.

5. The *tilde* (˜) is used, as in *cañon*, to show that the *n* is pronounced like *ny*, or *ni* as in *onion*.

Other diacritical marks are used, mainly in showing pronunciation, and generally with explanation.

HYPHENIZATION.

CHAPTER X.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

USAGE, as well as science, determines that, speaking generally, etymology is properly ignored in dividing words other than native compounds into syllables. Reasons in support of this are given immediately following our rules. Usage, however, excepts one class of words from the operation of this rule; and although the exception is not scientific, it is very useful and natural. This exception gives our first rule, as follows:

RULE I.—In dividing before one of the Anglo-Saxon suffixes, *ed*, *ing*, *er*, do not take over a consonant with the suffix, even when the preceding vowel is long, unless a final consonant is doubled.

danc-ing	dwell-ing	scan-ning
cring-ing	smell-ing	win-ning

bak-ing	count-ing	travel-ling
assum-ing	deliver-er	hat-ter
baptiz-ing	partak-er	pot-ter

In Funk & Wagnalls' Standard Dictionary all such words with a long vowel are divided contrary to this rule, as *bela-ted*, *ba-king*; but this is one of the scientific hair-splittings that we may reasonably reject, thus securing a convenient similarity of practice that can not be misunderstood. A strong objection to the practice of the Standard Dictionary seems to be found in the fact that some words with a similar long vowel sound are divided in the other way, as *spea-king*; and the reason for the difference is that a syllable like *bak* would ordinarily indicate a short vowel sound, while *spea-king* does not.

The whole matter is one merely of conventionality, and in the words affected there is no possibility of misleading; therefore it seems better to secure absolute simplicity and uniformity by assuming that every one understands that the part of the word at the end of a line represents a primitive word

in its entirety, as if the final vowel were retained.

Webster's International gives a mixed practice, utterly unreasonable, while the Standard is reasonable and consistent.

Both dictionaries treat many other terminations as English separable suffixes, as *able*, *ive*, *or*, but this results in many unreasonable and unnecessary differences, such as *ac-tor* and *contract-or* in the International, and *conjunct-ive* and *disjunct-ive* in the Standard. Much more convenient and reasonable is the result of considering these as mere Anglicized forms of foreign terminations, and not strictly English suffixes; for by so doing we get the same division in every word containing one of them, and at the same time are more truly scientific.

Some of the words instanced above are divided after two consonants, instead of between them, but it will be noticed that in these cases the two consonants are original in the primitive words.

RULE II.—Two consonants separately pronounced belong in different syllables.

satisfac-tory	lan-guage	trium-phant
neces-sary	ear-nest	deg-radation
bril-liant	prac-tical	biog-raphy
pic-ture	con-tinue	his-tory
scrip-ture	sub-due	pam-phlet
an-chor	adjec-tive	nor-mal
bot-tle	cas-tle	trick-le
bus-tle	bus-ting	lis-ten
blan-ket	drun-kard	hun-dred

One of the commonest violations of this rule is the division *earn-est*, for which no reason is apparent, unless it may have originated through false supposition of analogy with *earn-ing*. Another is *triumph-ant*, supposedly with some idea of preserving the word *triumph* as a separate element; but the word is not so preserved in speech, because of the change of accent.

Probably for the same reason, *children* is often divided after the *d*, instead of between *l* and *d*, though the latter is the only correct way to divide it.

Erroneous division of words like *picture* is

very common, having been learned probably from the old Webster and Worcester dictionaries. In those dictionaries little attention was given to practical syllabication, though it was not unnatural for printers to adopt the divisions indicated in their title-words just as their spellings were adopted. Webster's Unabridged has *fort-une* as a title, but its division at the ends of lines is *for-tune*, as it should be. Webster's International divides all such words between the consonants (*pic-ture*, *scrip-ture*), and so does Funk & Wagnalls' Standard, and these two dictionaries are the only ones that specifically consider word-division from a practical point of view.

In speech the division of sound comes naturally after the first consonant, and the second, when there are three, is closely joined to the third, not to the first.

RULE III.—(1) When a short vowel is followed by a single consonant or a digraph, as *ph*, the consonant is included in the syllable with it. (2) But when the sound of the consonant would be misrepre-

sented by inclusion in the earlier syllable that letter properly goes into the next syllable.

mech-anism	sep-arate	cruci-gerous
pat-ent	graph-ic	pre-judice
pal-ace	bun-ion	capa-city
prob-able	ne-cessary	ma-gic
compar-ative	lo-gic	fa-cile

The uncommon word *crucigerous* is given as an example because division after the *g* might indicate the hard sound of that letter to one not familiar with the word, and the other division should not. It is because of this possibility in unfamiliar words that the one practice is recommended for all similar cases.

Prejudice is included here because *j* never properly ends a syllable, as it is never used at the end of a word.

Likewise, while *g* soft begins many words, *g* is never soft as a terminal letter, and it is more reasonable to preserve its initial position.

RULE IV.—Long vowels and unaccented short ones generally close a syllable without the following consonant.

pa-triot	igno-rant	pecu-liar
appa-rent	me-dicinal	pecu-niary

wo-man	me-tallic	commu-nion
ca-pable	sepa-rable	exami-nation
pa-rent	mo-narchic	mecha-nism

The commonest exception is the syllable *er*, as in *gener-ation*. Words like *parent* and *apparent* belong under this rule, whether the pronunciation is held to be a circumflex *a* in the *pa* syllable, or what is commonly called "long *a*." The circumflex sound is more truly a long one than the other sound.

RULE V.—A short vowel preceding *sion*, *tion*, *cial*, *sure*, or any similar termination closes its syllable, without a consonant.

divi-sion	suffi-cient	reli-gious
mea-sure	benefi-cial	li-quor
posi-tion	reli-gion	opti-cian

A common way of providing for these divisions is by a rule that "the terminations *cean*, *cial*, *tial*, *ceous*, *cious*, *geous*, *tious*, *sion*, *tion*, and others of similar formation, must not be divided." The rule here given is thought to be better because it emphasizes the fact that the short accented vowel can not always take a consonant with it to close the syllable.

In most of these terminations the initial consonant and vowel are intimately connected in speech by aspiration, which is not indicated by the consonant alone; therefore this consonant and the following vowel should not be separated.

Measure is commonly misdivided *meas-ure* (it is so in the book in which the rule quoted above is found—Soule and Wheeler's "Manual of English Pronunciation and Spelling"). *Meas* does not spell the sound represented by *mez**h*, but *sure* is a fair representation of *zhure*.

One word in our list has a termination not strictly like the others, but its second syllable has a digraph (*qu*) that should never be divided.

RULE VI.—Words with Latin or Greek terminations (or as if from a classical model) should be divided according to sound, and not as if they had English suffixes.

classi-cal	albumi-nous	consis-tency
practi-cal	assis-tant	inhabi-tant
conjunc-tive	conduc-tor	correspon-dence

disjunc-tive	comfor-table	contrac-tor
detec-tive	termi-nal	impor-tance

The practice here prescribed is not a novel one, as many might suppose, but an old one that has become confused, through false etymology. *Classical* and *assistant* are not formed of English elements, *classic*, *al*, *assist*, *ant* ; they are complete Latin words, Anglicized. Thus, the divisions here recommended are more strictly etymological than the others, as well as more accurate phonetically. This is true of all similar words, and our rule gives a simple uniform practice, instead of the hair-splitting that results in such conflict as the International's *effect-ive* and *produc-tive*.

REASONS FOR ADOPTING THIS SYSTEM.

A schoolgirl, on hearing that her teacher had begun the writing of a grammar textbook, said: "I know what most of that book will be—every page will say, 'Grammarians differ.'" Grammarians do differ wofully on many matters with regard to which unanimity would be very beneficial; and syllabica-

tion is one of them. Opinion ranges from an idea of dividing all words as nearly as possible into their etymological elements, without reference to sound, to the absurdity of asserting that there is no such thing as a syllable.

This last opinion, though held by some famous philologists—if they are rightly reported—simply controverts an obvious fact, that can not be thrust aside.

Speech is composed of a succession of sounds that are certainly separated, more or less clearly, according to circumstance; and since the individual sounds undeniably occur, mainly as subdivisions of a complex entity called a word, they must, for practical purposes, have a name. The name used for them—syllable—is exactly appropriate. To printers the matter of division of words into syllables is practically important, and it is well worth while to attempt a systematic exposition of principles, with a view to some sort of common understanding.

Under present circumstances of disagreement, the best possible introduction of the

subject seems to be a trial at clear definition of the word *syllable*, since practically all people agree that the proper point of division is between syllables.

Funk & Wagnalls' Standard Dictionary defines *syllable* thus: "A single or articulated vocal sound; that which is uttered in a single vocal impulse; also, the characters or letters that represent such a sound; a word or part of a word that is capable of separate and complete enunciation by one voice-impulse."

Webster's International: "An elementary sound, or a combination of elementary sounds, uttered together, or with a single effort or impulse of the voice, and constituting a word or a part of a word. In writing or printing, a part of a word separated from the rest, and capable of being pronounced by a single impulse of the voice. It may or may not correspond to a syllable in the spoken language."

Worcester: "A letter, or a combination of letters, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word, or a part of a word. . . . The most natural way of dividing

words into syllables is to separate all the simple sounds of which any word consists so as not to divide those letters which are joined close together according to the most accurate pronunciation."

The Century Dictionary: "The smallest separately articulated element in human utterance; a vowel, alone, or accompanied by one or more consonants, and separated by these or by a pause from a preceding or following vowel," etc. The Century has a long explanation of syllables, but says nothing of the single vocal impulse, noted in all the other definitions. Its real intention, however, is identical with that of all the authorities, namely, that sound alone, and not derivation, determines syllables.

Wilson's "Treatise on English Punctuation" gives two general rules, of which the first is said to be adopted by American printers, and the second to be generally preferred by British typographers. We will first consider the latter: "The hyphen is employed in words in such a manner as is best calculated to show

their origin, composition, or import, and to exhibit the syllables in their neatest form." This is not so clear alone as it is when contrasted with the other or so-called American rule, which is: "The hyphen is used between the syllables of a word to exhibit, as accurately as possible, its true pronunciation; no regard being paid to the mode in which it has been formed or derived."

Some examples given with the rule for "British" division are *ha-bit*, *pre-face*, *as-tro-no-my*, *an-ti-po-des*, *ta-lent*, *me-lon*; and while some of these happen to show the etymological elements of the word, most words do not show them with such division.

Thus we see that Wilson's rule is not adequate for all cases. In fact, the old familiar rule for divisions like those instanced was much better—"Divide on the vowel." Words were originally so divided because of a common opinion that such division best represented the real points of separation in sound; and this opinion is more truly scientific than its opposite.

It is a real phonetic fact that a consonant, simple or complex (as *g* or *gr* or *ph*), connects more closely in speech with a following vowel than it does with one preceding. Thus, *bi-o-gra-phy* and *gra-phy* better represent the actual turn of the voice from one syllable to the next than do *bi-og-ra-phy* and *graph-ic*.

Notwithstanding the absolute conviction that earlier British printers were truly scientific in dividing "on the vowel" (the good old practice is not at all common now), and the fact that other languages preserve the system entire, there is good practical reason in favor of the other method, more especially because it aids in determining at sight whether a vowel is "long" or "short," according to our common somewhat perverted understanding of those words. (Originally they noted actual difference in quantity or length, as they still do of Latin and Greek vowels; but now they are used of English vowels for an actual difference of sound, such as would be scientifically indicated by different characters.)

Like everything else, syllabication will

cause less trouble if people generally will adopt some system of broad principles, even at the sacrifice of pet notions that have become so familiar that they seem bound to be right.

Syllabication, from any point of view, is essentially a lost art, and that is one reason for hoping that an art may be built up acceptably if those most deeply interested will lay aside some prejudices.

Only two of our dictionaries have attempted indication of divisions for printers, and they—two of the newest ones—have failed to acknowledge one of the most important principles, with the effect of leaving differences that will inevitably cause trouble. Another way of accounting for some differences in each of the two works would be to say that a principle was assumed that is not convenient, because it constitutes an additional and needless burden. Examples of this are *aggres-sive* and *excess-ive*, *conjunc-tive* and *disjunct-ive*, and there are many others.

The reasoning that led to this was that there is no common word *aggress*, and so *ag-*

gressive must be divided as its Latin model would be; on the contrary, there is a common word *excess*, and so *excessive* is divided into the assumed elements *excess* and *ive*.

Now, suppose two proof-readers work in the same office, and they are told to follow a certain dictionary in dividing words. One of them looks up *aggressive*. When that man afterward has the word *excessive* to divide, will he not instinctively follow the pattern set for him in the other word, without thinking to use the employer's time in looking up something he naturally thinks he already knows? Again, if the other reader happens first to consult the dictionary for the other word, will he not thereafter divide according to that pattern? And thus each of the two proof-readers will think he is following the authority until it is discovered that they are not marking alike, and each will find that he is wrong. This would happen over and over, and the only way to avoid it would be to have the proof-reader waste valuable time in consulting the dictionary, with the inevitable result of throwing

authority aside or ceasing to care about consistency.

So far as the reading public is concerned, consistency in such matters is of slight importance; but it is unquestionably important to employer and employee in printing-offices. An easily understood consistent practice is conducive to comfort, and consequently to speed and quality in production.- These surely are desiderata not to be despised, and they are placed first here, in preference to real scientific principles, because of their true economic importance.

That is always the best economic practice which demands similar treatment for exactly similar cases, without undue hair-splitting in the search for differing circumstances. A very forcible instance of such undue hair-splitting is found in the International, which makes a rule for dividing *baptiz-ing*, and another for *exerci-sing*, because there is a slight difference of accent.

CHAPTER XI.

COMPOUND WORDS.

A COMPOUND word is a combination of two or more words into one, whether joined with a hyphen or in solid form. Many words established beyond question as units are really compounds, although they are not commonly recognized as such, and need not be. Thus, as matter of fact, all the names of days are real compounds, as *Sunday*, for instance, is a union of *sun* and *day*, but of course no one thinks of the name as anything but a single word.

Many common names that are exactly analogous with *Sunday* in their make, and are unquestionably in their nature single words, are not universally recognized as compounds, and probably a universal choice of form for all terms that are on principle real compounds will

never be attained. Nevertheless, certain principles are beyond question the only ones that are real, and are recognized as such by all linguistic scholars, though many do not in practice apply them consistently. The only way to give a reason in any instance for joining two words as one demands a recognition of the following

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

I.—Two words used together without inherent grammatical relation are properly a grammatical unit, and should be joined as a compound in writing, as they generally are by accent in speech.

II.—Words so associated as to conform separately to real grammatical classification should not be compounded, unless their joint application is arbitrary.

A few of the arbitrary applications that make two words become one are seen in such words as *blackberry*, the established name of a specific kind of berry, not merely a berry that is black; *bluecoat* for a man who wears a blue coat (generally a policeman); *goldenrod*, the name of a plant, not a rod.

So many common terms in our language are properly compounds, and there are so many real or seeming exceptions to any possible grammatical rules, that it seems impossible to follow the policy pursued elsewhere in this book of extreme reduction of the number of rules. We give, however, the least number possible for clearness, and distinguish them grammatically.

COMPOUND NOUNS MADE OF TWO NOUNS.

RULE I.—Two nouns used together as one name, in such a way that the first does not convey a descriptive or attributive sense, or so that the two are not in apposition, form a compound noun.

SUB-RULE 1.—*Commonly, in the literal use of such words, the parts should be joined with a hyphen.*

There are many exceptions to this rule, depending merely on usage.

SUB-RULE 2.—*Invariably, such words arbitrarily applied should be joined without a hyphen.*

Under the main rule and the first sub-rule

here are the following correct forms, selected from a dictionary :

ant-bear	fish-block	pillar-block
ant-cattle	fish-tackle	praise-meeting
ant-eater	flea-bite	prompt-book
ant-hill	fly-case	puddle-ball
ant-lion	frost-blite	rest-harrow
ash-oven	gold-beating	rope-yarn
base-burner	hand-hole	scape-wheel
buck-basket	harvest-home	school-ship
castle-builder	hay-cutter	screw-driver
castle-guard	honey-bag	sea-bar
catch-basin	horse-jockey	sea-maid
chick-pea	horse-litter	shield-bearer
coal-meter	knife-edge	slate-color
cope-chisel	lamp-post	spoon-meat
cow-pilot	life-preserver	story-teller
cream-slice	light-ship	tilt-yard
crown-saw	lock-weir	title-page
deaf-mute	mail-shell	tool-rest
deer-neck	mill-sixpence	valve-shell
dock-cress	mince-meat	water-withe
earth-tongue	mint-master	wind-plant
egg-cup	money-maker	wool-hall
egg-glass	pea-jacket	worm-shell

These are given as examples because the work containing them has thousands of words

like them in the solid-word form, and many of exactly the same nature split apart as two words. Yet, notwithstanding the fact that that dictionary claims to record usage, and comes as near to doing so as any one could without recognizing a real principle, it could be proved, though with enormous labor, that our very best writers and printers have applied the reasoning that makes words like them hyphenated compounds. The weight of usage is certainly in favor of these hyphens, and no such name can be written as two words with recognition of any real principle.

Many nouns that would have a hyphen according to the rule of literalness in sense are fully established as continuous words, and the following is a reasonably full list of those already so established. Others may from time to time become common in the close form, and familiar short words of their nature are not strictly erroneous in any but the separated form. It should be understood that these are given as exceptions to the sub-rule.

dir. ar.

COMPOUND NOUNS IRREGULARLY SOLIDIFIED.

almsgiver	barman	beemaster
almshouse	barmaster	bellman
almsman	baseball	betelnut
angleworm	bathroom	birdlime
armhole	bathtub	birthday
armpit	beachman	birthland
axemaster	beachmaster	birthmark
axletree	beadwork	birthnight
backache	beakhead	birthplace
backgammon	bearskin	birthright
backlog	bedchamber	blockhouse
backstay	bedclothes	bloodhound
backwood	bedcover	bloodshed
baggage	bedfellow	bloodworm
bagman	bedgown	boatwright
bagpipes	bedmate	bombshell
balladmonger	bedplate	bondmaid
ballroom	bedpost	bondman
bandbox	bedquilt	bondwoman
bargeman	bedroom	bookbinder
bargemaster	bedside	bookbinding
barkeeper	bedspread	bookcase
barkeeping	bedtime	bookkeeper
barleycorn	beefsteak	bookman
barrel	beehive	bookmonger

bookseller	cabman	coachmaster
bookselling	candlenut	coalman
bootjack	capstone	coalmaster
bowline	cardboard	cockhead
bowsprit	caretaker	cockloft
brainpan	carpetbag	cockroach
brainsand	carpetbagger	cofferwork
breastpin	catcall	copperwork
breastplate	catchword	copyright
breastwork	cellarman	cottonseed
brickbat	chainsmith	countryside
bricklayer	chainwork	countrywoman
bricklaying	chalkstone	courtyard
brickwork	chambermaid	cowherd
bridegroom	charwoman	cowhide
broomstick	chessman	cribwork
buckhorn	childbed	crownwork
buckshot	childbirth	curbstone
buckskin	churchgoer	cuttlefish
bulkhead	churchgoing	dairymaid
bulldog	churchyard	dairyman
bullfinch	clambake	dairywoman
bushman	classman	daybreak
bushranger	classmate	daylight
bushwhacker	classroom	daytime
buttermilk	clockwork	deerhound
buttonhole	coachfellow	deerskin

dewfall	eyeshot	flagworm
dockmaster	eyesight	flaxseed
doeskin	eyesore	flintstone
dogskin	eyestone	foodstuff
doorkeeper	eyestring	football
dressmaker	fanlight	footfall
dressmaking	farmhouse	foothold
drumhead	farmyard	footlights
drumstick	faultfinder	footmark
dunghill	faultfinding	footprint
dustpan	featherbone	footstalk
dyestuff	figurehead	footstep
earmark	fingerbreadth	footstool
carpick	fireback	fountainhead
earring	fireboard	foxhound
earthquake	firecracker	framework
earthwork	firefly	frostwork
earthworm	firelight	gallnut
eelfare	firelock	garnetwork
eelskin	fireplace	gaslight
evenfall	fireworks	gatekeeper
eyeball	fishmonger	gingerbread
eyebam	fishwife	gingernut
eyebrow	fishworm	gingersnap
eyelash	flagpole	goatherd
eyelid	flagstaff	goatskin
eyepiece	flagstone	godsend

goldsmith	handmaiden	hornstone
gooseherd	handspike	hornwork
gourdworm	handspring	horseback
gravestone	handwriting	horsehair
graveyard	harehound	horsemaster
groundnut	hatband	horsepox
groundsill	hawthorn	horseradish
groundwork	haycock	horseshoe
guesswork	haymow	horsetail
guidecraft	haystack	horsewhip
guildhall	hazelnut	horsewoman
gunboat	headache	housebreaker
guncotton	headcheese	housebreaking
gunmaker	headland	housekeeper
gunmaking	headlight	housekeeping
gunpowder	heartache	housemaid
gunshot	heartburn	housemate
gunsmith	hearthstone	housetop
hairworm	hedg hog	hundredweight
hammerman	hillside	iceberg
handball	hilltop	iceman
handbill	hogherd	inchworm
handbook	hognut	inknut
handbreadth	honeycomb	inkstand
handcuff	honeydew	innholder
handkerchief	honeymoon	innkeeper
handmaid	hornpipe	ironman

ironmaster	lawmaker	meshwork
ironsmith	lawmaking	messmate
ironwork	lawmonger	milkmaid
ivorynut	lawsuit	milkman
jacksmith	leafstalk	millboard
jackstone	leafwork	millstone
jailbird	leechcraft	millwright
junkman	liegeman	moonrise
keyboard	lighthouse	moonset
keyhole	limestone	moonshine
kingcraft	lineman	moonstone
kirkyard	locksmith	mountainside
kneecap	loopwork	mouthpiece
kneepan	loopworm	muskmelon
lambskin	lumberman	neatherd
lampblack	madhouse	necktie
landholder	mainmast	neckwear
landlady	mainroyal	needleman
landlord	mainsail	needlewoman
landmark	mainspring	needlework
landowner	mainstay	network
landscape	maintop	newsboy
landslide	maltman	newsman
landslip	maltmaster	nightcap
latticework	manhole	nightclothes
lawbreaker	manslaughter	nightdress
lawbreaking	marketman	nightfall

nightgown	pignut	postmaster
nightrobe	pigskin	postmistress
nightshirt	pigsty	potpie
oatmeal	pikestaff	potsherd
oilcloth	pilework	poundmaster
oilskin	pincushion	pressroom
oilstone	pineapple	quartermaster
packhorse	pinhole	queencraft
pancake	pinwork	rackwork
password	pipework	ragman
pasteboard	pitfall	ragpicker
patchwork	playbill	ragpicking
pawnbroker	playfellow	railroad
pawnshop	playground	railway
paymaster	playhouse	rainband
paymistress	playmate	rainbow
peacock	playroom	rainfall
peafowl	plaything	rainpour
peahen	playtime	ramskin
pearlash	playwright	ranchman
penholder	ploughshare	ratepayer
pennyweight	ploughwright	ratepaying
pennyworth	pocketbook	Ribbonman
peppercorn	poorhouse	ribbonworm
peppermint	poormaster	rickyard
pewholder	porterhouse	ringleader
pigeonhole	postmark	riverside

roadside	schoolmaster	shoemaker
rockwork	schoolmate	shoemaking
rooftree	schoolmistress	shopkeeper
roommate	schoolroom	shopkeeping
rootstock	scrollwork	shoplifter
rosebud	seacoast	shoplifting
rumshop	seafarer	shotgun
runecraft	seafaring	showman
runesmith	sealskin	showroom
sailmaker	seaport	silkworm
sailmaking	seascape	skylark
salesgirl	seashore	skylight
salesman	seasick	slaveholder
salesroom	seasickness	slaveholding
sandpaper	seaside	snowball
sandstone	seaweed	snowfall
sandworm	shareholder	snowflake
saucepan	sheepfold	snowslide
sawlog	sheepskin	soapstone
sawmill	sheepwalk	songcraft
scandalmonger	shellwork	soundboard
schoolboy	shipman	spearman
schoolcraft	shipmaster	spearmint
schoolfellow	shipmate	spoonworm
schoolgirl	shipwreck	spycraft
schoolhouse	shipwright	stagewright
schoolman	shipyard	staircase

stakeholder	sunset	toothache
standpipe	sunshade	toothpick
standpoint	sunshine	torchlight
statecraft	sunstroke	townfolk
stateroom	surfman	trackman
staymaker	swanherd	trackmaster
steamboat	swineherd	trademaster
steamship	tablespoon	trainman
steelwork	tapeworm	tramroad
steelyard	taskmaster	tramway
steeplechase	taskmistress	trapfall
stockman	teacup	trelliswork
stockwork	teakettle	trestletree
stoneman	teapot	trestlework
stonework	teaspoon	typesetter
storehouse	thanksgiving	typesetting
storekeeper	theatregoer	typewriter
storekeeping	theatregoing	typewriting
storemaster	threadworm	viewpoint
storeroom	thumbscrew	vineyard
strapworm	thunderblast	wagonwright
sunbeam	thunderbolt	wainwright
sunbonnet	thunderclap	waistband
sunburn	timberman	waistcoat
sunburst	timekeeper	wardrobe
sunlight	timepiece	warehouse
sunrise	tinsmith	wareroom

warfare	wayfarer	wolfskin
watchmaker	wayfaring	womankind
watchmaking	wayside	woodcraft
watchword	whalebone	woodland
watchwork	wharfmaster	woodwork
watercourse	wheelwright	woolmonger
watercress	whipworm	workfellow
waterfall	wickerwork	workhouse
watermelon	windmill	workroom
watershed	windpipe	workshop
waterside	wirework	wristband
waterspout	wireworm	yardstick
waxwork	witchcraft	yokefellow

Among these seven hundred words some are given that are often printed with a hyphen, or even separated as two words; but, as far as the writer's careful judgment can determine, they are all truly established as solid words, except a few that are included because it is far more convenient not to have them conflict in form with some others.

Our language contains a large number of compound words that are properly written without a hyphen as a matter of principle, for which rules must be stated. We have one

such rule above, under which we give the following as examples :

arrowwood (a plant)	nutpecker (a bird)
balsamroot (a plant)	pepperwood (a tree)
coneflower (a plant)	pintail (a duck)
cottonwood (a tree)	thornbill (a bird)
hooktip (a moth)	thumbscrew (for torture)
ironwood (a tree)	wheatear (a bird)
marblehead (a petrel)	wheelseed (a plant)
matchlock (a gun)	yellowthroat (a bird)

Some also there are that do not exactly fit either of our sub-rules to the exclusion of the other, and yet they are covered by the main rule. Among these are names of fishes and birds, ending with the general name *fish* or *bird*. We can not say that any system is really prevalent as to the form of these names; but it is reasonable to suppose that system is preferable, and an easy one may be indicated, that is in keeping with prevalent usage in most points. In doing this we shall include all names with the terminations, though they are not each made of two nouns.

An object-lesson may be found in a standard book having an index full of such names, in which most *fish* names appear with a hyphen, though some are two words (which none should be), and the others show such differences as *blackbird*, *blue-bird*, and *red bird*.

So far as real usage gives a basis for any system, the only one indicated is believed to be shown in the following forms, here given merely as examples of the close form for the shortest words and the hyphenated for all that have more than two syllables:

blackfish	adder-fish	blackbird	bower-bird
bluefish	balloon-fish	bluebird	devil-bird
blindfish	devil-fish	redbird	humming-bird
dogfish	harvest-fish	reedbird	oven-bird
goatfish	lantern-fish	ricebird	rifle-bird
horsefish	mermaid-fish	thornbird	tailor-bird
swordfish	ribbon-fish	tonguebird	thistle-bird
weakfish	swallow-fish	whitebird	weaver-bird

This is only a suggestion, and many of these words may reasonably have a hyphen where our system would not place one, and

some of the hyphens indicated may reasonably be omitted. Making two words of any such name, however, is real error, so far as principle is concerned.

Many common names will suggest themselves in categories like these, and the intention here is to indicate joining of all similar terms. Thus, every mere name with *tree* as its second element is a compound word. *Apple-tree*, *pear-tree*, etc., without exception, are proper forms, and *apple tree*, etc., are improper, as *apple*, etc., are not adjectives, and there is no qualification in the names. So with *match-box* and all names that mean merely "box to hold" something, and everything else exactly like them.

SOME WORDS USED AS INSEPARABLE SUFFIXES.

The words *boy*, *man*, *stick*, *piece*, *way*, *weed*, *work*, occur as terminations of many nouns in which they stand as if mere suffixes, and *wort*, formerly a common word for herb, is now obsolete except as part of a word. Some of the words ending with *man* are given in the list of

exceptions above, because that syllable is there pronounced with its full sound—*i. e.*, not obscured. No separate rule is stated for such words, because the use may fairly be classed as arbitrary. Following are examples, intended to indicate the form that all like them should have :

cowboy	entranceway	ironwork
footboy	carriageway	barrenwort
footman	seaweed	blackwort
Irishman	milkweed	bladderwort
candlestick	brasswork	milkwort
mantelpiece	brickwork	motherwort
areaway	clockwork	thoroughwort

OTHER COMPOUND NOUNS.

RULE.—Any two words used in arbitrary association as a single name are in that use properly a compound noun.

Thus we have *grandfather* and similar words—adjective and noun; *waterproof*, etc.—noun and adjective; *holder-forth*, etc.—noun and adverb; *drawbridge*, *pickpocket*, *foster-brother*, etc.—verb and noun; *back-return*, *cross-purpose*, etc.—adverb and noun; *after-ages*,

after-consideration, etc.—preposition and noun ;
high-low, *wide-awake*—two adjectives ; *break-up*,
make-up, etc.—verb and adverb or preposition ;
to-do—preposition and verb.

No word like any of these should ever be written as two words.

COMPOUNDS OF OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

RULE.—Two or more words in arbitrary construction, or in such connection that they might be misunderstood as separate words, properly form a compound.

Thus we have as compound adjectives : .

red-hot	fancy-free	hand-sewed
ashy-blue	post-free	needle-pointed
smoky-yellow	sky-high	ill-bred
bandy-legged	type-high	well-known
native-born	fire-new	lack-linen

And as verbs and adverbs :

case-harden	cross-examine	thenceforth
halter-break	downbear	brain-sickly
hammer-harden	balance-reef	faint-heartedly
dry-iron	drawbore	broadcast
hot-press	downright	down-stairs

The most common error in any of these cases is the separation of the compound adjectives into two words when they do not stand just before nouns, though they are joined in the attributive position.

On the contrary, when words are in proper syntactic association, they should not be compounded, either in the predicative or in the attributive use. Thus, it is not uncommon, but it is decidedly unnecessary and even erroneous, to join such words as "*newly married* couple," because the adverb and adjective stand in their normal grammatical relation as separate words. In such expressions as "a *well-known* man" compounding is done in fact in the association of the words in such position, and should be shown in form. In "a man *well known*," "a book *so called*," no compounding is present in fact, and so none should be in form.

Compounding like that in the attributive *well-known* may be carried to the extent of joining a number of words, as in "a *never-to-be-forgotten* occurrence," but it is better to avoid

such expressions. Some people even carry this method of joining so far as to write "*District-Attorney* Jones," "*United-States* laws," "a *New-York directory*," etc.; but all such joinings are clearly unnecessary, to say the least.

CAPITALIZATION.

CHAPTER XII.

USE AND NON-USE OF CAPITALS.

RULE I.—Every sentence must begin with a capital letter.

RULE II.—Every line in poetry begins with a capital letter.

RULE III.—Every proper name must begin with a capital letter.

Remark.—This is a universal rule, but there is an almost universal misunderstanding, or at least much disagreement, as to its true scope. See the discussion following these rules.

To fix the intended practice, however, it seems well to say here that the rule is meant to indicate capitalizing for such particular (proper) uses of common words as *Constitution* (fundamental law of a state), *Cabinet*, *Government*, *Administration*, *State* (one of the United

States, but not of any other country), *Capitol*, names of official committees, etc., but with careful discrimination between particular and common uses.

RULE IV.—Every word derived from a proper noun, unless it has lost the direct connection or literal sense of the name, should be capitalized.

Remark.—The exception is intended for such words as *china*, meaning porcelain; *boycott*, to persecute as Boycott was persecuted; *india-rubber*, caoutchouc, etc. Some such words are not fully established in this common footing. Thus, some people prefer *Herculean*, as preserving the direct reference to Hercules, but others write *herculean*, as merely a common word denoting great effort.

Words like *Congressional*, *Senatorial*, *Presidential*, referring to the United States Congress, Senate, and President, should always be capitalized.

RULE V.—All appellatives of God should have capital initials.

RULE VI.—All titles of military, corporation, society, political, and judicial officers, except those

of the most inferior ranks, should have capital initials.

Remark.—The exceptions here are non-commissioned officers up to *corporal* and *midshipman*, and corresponding titles in other connections. It is better to capitalize *Judge* and *Justice* every time an occupant of the bench of justice is meant, to insure the distinction that sometimes must be so made. Of course words similar to some of these titles are properly written with small initials in their common uses. Thus, "he is a great *general*," but "the *General* in command"; "the President's *secretary*," but "the *Secretary* of the society."

RULE VII.—The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* are always written as capital letters.

SOME REASONING ABOUT CAPITALIZATION.

Rules for the use of capital letters are a feature of nearly every text-book on grammar, rhetoric, or punctuation, and yet it remains partly true, as Gould Brown wrote more than forty years ago, that "The innumerable discrepancies in respect to capitals which, to a

greater or less extent, disgrace the very best editions of our most popular books, are a sufficient evidence of the want of better directions on this point." If the directions then and since given had been duly studied and applied, the discrepancies would not be innumerable; and this is why the saying quoted is only partly true. Good rules are studied in our schools, and yet, for some unexplainable reason, there are few printing-offices where the knowledge acquired in school is not nullified by whimsical practice.

It pays to be cautious in the use of epithets, yet it does not seem possible to class as anything but sheer absurdity such form as "The mayor wants to give the Governor his views," found as settled style in a newspaper, which also printed such titles as "secretary of the treasury" without distinction by capitals, although it capitalized the name of this Secretary's governmental department alone, as "the Treasury," and even used a capital letter (a still more absurd practice, if that is possible) for a coachman or a scavenger if the word

happened to stand before a name, as "Coachman or Scavenger Smith."

Sometimes the Speaker is correctly distinguished from a speaker by the use of a capital, but the Recorder of New York (a Judge) is mentioned as "the recorder," as if merely one who records, and the system of principles or rules serving as the basis of a government is called the "constitution," with the small initial, the same as the word in a purely common use.

Discrepancies certainly exist now, and they are as disgraceful now as they ever were. Even Goold Brown, however, did not formulate a perfectly satisfactory system, a fact acknowledged by himself in these words: "In amending the rules for this purpose [that of furnishing better directions], I have not been able entirely to satisfy myself, and therefore must needs fail to satisfy the critical reader."

Most of Brown's rules are not only satisfactory, but are in accord with universal practice; his lack of satisfaction, as gathered from his writing, was confined to particular uses of common words within the sentence, most of

the words in question being often accounted proper names in such particular use, or so closely to partake of the nature of proper names that it is well to distinguish them by capital initials.

Brown's fourth rule is: "Proper names, of every description, should always begin with capitals." So far as a name peculiar to a person or a place is concerned, or that of a day or a month, this rule presents no difficulty; and some grammarians have even defined proper names as "the names of persons or places." So much must have been plain to Gould Brown, but he says: "But not all is plain, and I will not veil the cause of embarrassment. It is only an act of imposture to pretend that grammar is easy, instead of making it so. Innumerable instances occur in which the following assertion is by no means true: 'The distinction between a common and a proper noun is very obvious.'—*Kirkham's Gram.*, p. 32. Nor do the remarks of this author, or those of any other that I am acquainted with, remove any part of the diffi-

culty." A list of more than five hundred books is given by Brown as having been closely examined by him, and this, in connection with our quotations, may be taken as conclusive evidence that grammar has not been made easy in this matter. Can it be made easy?

Personal opinion, accompanied in its expression with clearly stated reasons, may at least furnish practical aid, and it is with that object that this is written. The quotations following, which show the writer's preferences, are from the "Vest Pocket Manual of Printing," published by the Inland Printer Company of Chicago.

Under the rule "All proper names are capitalized," it is remarked that "this is a universally accepted rule, but its application produces many different results, arising in the varied understanding of the term *proper name*." A paragraph under this rule reads as follows: "In naming bodies of water, mountains, counties, streets, avenues, etc., such words as *ocean, river, mountain, county, street, and ave-*

nue are often written with small initial letters; as, *Atlantic ocean, Cook county, Monroe street.* But when one of these words is an essential part of the proper name—as when the distinctive word is also common—it should be capitalized; as, *North River, Rocky Mountains."*

The first part of this was not stated as a positive rule, because usage is unsettled. Most grammarians, or at least many of them, prescribe capital letters for all such words in such use; and this is the simpler and easier practice. In most cases, however, the words do not seem to be essential parts of the proper names, and non-capitalizing favors the now common objection to frequent use of capitals. If the common words are not capitalized, the practice should include all words similarly used; as, *Fourth ward, district, precinct,* etc. Standing before the proper word in such a name the common noun is capitalized, except when preceded by the definite article; as, *Lake Michigan, County Cork;* but *the river Rhine.*

A slight difficulty arises here in the fact that *island*, *sound*, *bay*, and *gulf* are always capitalized in such names; as, *Long Island Sound*, *Hudson Bay*, *Gulf of Mexico*; but if a system is ever devised that embodies no worse inconsistency than this, it will be a marvel of accuracy.

"Titles of office before personal names, and other titles so placed which are not mere common names of vocation, are written with capitals; as, *Senator Jones*, *Doctor* (or *Dr.*) *Brown*, *Aunt Jane*, *Miss* or *Master Gray*; but *coachman Smith*, *barber Harris*. Titles of dignity are also commonly capitalized when used alone, as in address, or with the definite article; as, *the President*, *Judge*, *the District Attorney*. It is best to distinguish between particular and common uses of such words, and to write 'he was a district attorney,' or anything similar, without capitals."

"Many special names of a common kind are, in particular uses, treated as proper nouns and capitalized; as, *Congress*, *Parliament*, *Senate*, *House of Representatives*, *State* (for one of

the United States), *Hudson River Railroad*. . . . In really common uses such words should never be capitalized; as, *a congress of merchants, state papers, the church* (a congregation), *the Church* (a denomination)."

No good reason is evident for giving *coachman* or *barber* a capital letter, in any position. On the contrary, the utility of distinguishing all the other kinds of titles mentioned seems obvious. Surely *Mayor* and *Governor* are too much alike to be differentiated with reason, and all titles of office or dignity are on a level with them. If any official title is capitalized, all such titles should be; but not common titles of rank used in common senses; as, *a king, a prince, a duke*.

"Adjectives and nouns derived from proper names are written with capitals; as, *Jacksonian, New-Yorker, Congressman*." The same reason holds good for *Congressman* and similar words that applies to any word under the rule. *Congress* in this use is the particular name of a particular body, and a *Congressman* is simply a man of Congress, the first element in the

compound being the proper noun, exactly the same as it is in the full phrase. It has been reasoned that it was better to write *congressman*, because the word properly applies to a Senator as well as to a Representative; but this is true in theory only, and the word is really seldom (if ever) used except to mean a member of the House of Representatives. The true basis for the use of a capital letter, however, is the reason given above. Of course, *Assemblyman* and every other word of exactly similar nature should be treated in the same way.

Some words derived from proper nouns, and even some such nouns themselves, are used in common senses, with no immediate thought of the particular individual primarily named, and in such uses small initials are better. Thus we have *india-rubber*, *boycott*, *bowie-knife*, *adamite* (a mineral), *herculean* (when not referring immediately to Hercules), etc.

All rules are often misapplied, but none more so than those of capitalization. Even a

rule that only names of persons or places are to have capital initials leaves parts of geographical names open to question, unless it is strictly applied only to the particularizing elements in such names.

Undoubtedly, much of the present difficulty as to capitalizing is the outcome of misapplication of good rules, shown mainly in the use of too many capital letters. In the office of a New York paper a system of capitalization was established some years ago, which was intelligently applied for a few years; but some of its principles have become less clearly defined to the minds of the proof-readers, and now some words are often capitalized in their regular common use, simply because the capital letters were prescribed for particular uses. In the category of particular uses are such titles as *Governor* of a State, *President* of a republic, *Doctor* when referring to a doctor previously named, and *Superintendent* as applied to a police official. The distinction between titular and common uses of these words is valuable, and, moreover, it is prevailingly made in

the best literature; but when it leads to such capitalizing as in "the Superintendent of the mill," recently seen in the paper referred to, one is not so much inclined to wonder at the present tendency toward confusion by the use of small initials.

In capitalization, as in every other matter of form, simplification is desirable; but merely writing all words except personal or geographical names with small initials is not true simplification. The simplifying that is most needed is that of properly applying principles, so that distinctions of form may be generally understood and reading-matter actually simplified for its readers.

A style-card from a Canadian printing-office affords a good example. Here is one of its rules: "Put down the words *state*, *government*, *parliament*, *legislature*, *congress*, *senate* and *house*, and titles when used alone, as *senator*, *governor*, *general*, etc." ("Put down" means "use a small initial letter.") Just above is a direction to capitalize *Celestial* (Chinaman). This is a case of absolutely unreasonable dis-

inction, far from true simplification. It is right to capitalize *Celestial* in the use named, but the same reason that makes this right prescribes capitals for particular uses of the words given in the other rule.

The same style-card says: "When names of corporations occur, capitalize as follows: *Canadian Pacific railway, Grand Trunk Railroad company, Dime Savings bank, Palmer house.*" Why *railway* in one name and *Railroad* in the other? Because the maker of the rules wanted them so. One may well doubt any person's ability to give a satisfactory reason. Certainly this distinction is anything but an approach to simplification, and it is contrary to common practice and teaching.

One more of these rules may well introduce an important matter not yet treated in this writing. It is: "In heads do not capitalize the words *a, a la, an, and, as, at, but, by, for, from, if, in, of, on, or, the, to, vs., with,* and (sometimes) *so.* Capitalize other words, also the last word, in a head." A good objection to such a rule seems to be found in the fact

that it indicates such contradictory form as "Two Voted for It, and Ten Against It," "Put in His Thumb, Pulled Out a Plum," "One Car Was on the Track, the Other Off of It." Now, it may be that a good proof-reader would correct these discrepancies notwithstanding the rule, but it is hard to find a reason why rule and practice should not agree. It is not unlikely that the rule is not closely followed, even by its own maker.

Another rule probably made with similar intention is supposed to be in force on another New York paper, but is not and can not be followed. It reads: "In headings capitalize all words except prepositions, conjunctions, and articles." Of course, this must mean "do not capitalize prepositions or conjunctions." Such rules are made without sufficient thought. No good working rule can be made by specifying words or parts of speech. A word may demand capitalizing in one use and not in another, and a preposition, and even sometimes a conjunction, may be too emphatic for non-capitalizing, while commonly pronouns

and nearly always auxiliary verbs should not be capitalized.

Notwithstanding the fact that the use of a capital letter for almost every word in a heading is now nearly universal, it is unreasonable practice, and makes many newspaper headings very unsightly. What is needed is relief from the poor effect of using small letters all through, and, when the words all happen to be short, from the worse effect produced by close alternation, as in such a head as "Jones Was Lost, and It Is Said He Met His Son, Who Would Not Aid Him." Compare this with "Jones was Lost, and it is Said he Met his Son, who would Not Aid Him." Does not the latter form look neater? The early files of the first paper referred to above would show headings printed according to our second form, and the beginning of deterioration from that good practice arose in the inability of the compositors to recognize the difference between the auxiliary and the principal use of the verb *have*.

The best rule for capitalization in headings

seems to be, "Capitalize all the important or emphatic words." The best practice under this rule would be avoidance of strenuous effort toward inflexible application of it. Most rules are better and more satisfactory in their result if not applied too minutely.

SPELLING.

CHAPTER XIII.

PRESENT ENGLISH SPELLING.

ORTHOGRAPHY is practically as well settled in English as it seems possible that it ever will be, notwithstanding the unquestionable truth of most of the severe criticisms that have been uttered. It has undergone many changes, largely by way of simplification, yet it has withstood many assaults from advocates of a certain kind of simplification, called phonetic.

From the very start there have never been lacking men who would have each sound in the language always represented by the same letter or letters, regardless of etymology or anything else. Possibly a good reason for the failure of their efforts in this direction may lie

in the fact that there is always some bald inconsistency in whatever they recommend. However this may be, the people have not adopted any of the various systems of innovation, and the editors of the Webster dictionaries seem to have stated the bare truth in the following:

“The irregularities found in early books, though continuing for so long a time, were neither unnoticed nor looked upon with indifference. On the contrary, not only have numerous complete systems for the reformation of orthography been proposed, but various scholars have advocated, with more or less acuteness and learning, changes in regard to a great number of particular points. Sir Thomas Smith, Secretary of State to Queen Elizabeth, was the first who endeavored to introduce a regular system of orthography; after him, William Bullokar brought forward another system; a few years after this, Dr. Gill, master of St. Paul's School, in London, a teacher of considerable eminence, proposed another scheme; and, still later, Charles But-

ler devised a new method of spelling, and printed a book in which it was employed. These writers agreed essentially as to the manner in which they sought to attain the end proposed, their plan being to reduce the spelling of words to uniform principles, and make it practically phonetic, by the use of new characters, by applying various diacritical marks to the old letters, and by making the letters, or their combinations of characters, represent certain definite sounds. It is needless to say that these projects were never carried into practice."

Nevertheless, some of the changes in regard to particular points were made, notably the dropping of the *k* from words like *musick*, so that now we have no such words spelled in the old way. The question is open whether we have any similar particular point that may yet be amenable to such real simplification.

While most English words have been settled in their one present spelling so long that it seems impossible to find a good reason for

change, some classes of words are spelled differently by different people, and there is so much reason on both sides, in some cases at least, that universal adoption of one form for them is probably unattainable. These are the words prominently in mind as the occasion of a recent editorial article in the *Chicago Times-Herald*, from which we quote the following:

“Among the many things universally desired, and to be had only through international agreement, is an English speller. This would not imply the bulk, the scope, or the expense of a dictionary. The number of words variously spelled in English is not so great as to require a quarto volume to contain them, with or without definitions, etymology, and historical illustrations of their use. Probably their number would not exceed two thousand. Contention would not traverse more than half that number, if indeed so large a proportion. A decision, conventional at least, could be reached by which all parties should be bound in advance to abide.”

Grave doubt is possible as to the universality of the desire, and it is almost sure that a decision could not be reached that would be internationally effective. The prime obstacle is exactly that which has made the diversity—national pride or obstinacy.

British orthographers had settled upon a doubling of the final consonant in certain words on adding a suffix, for a specific reason that seemed decisive to most of them, though some few, even of British lexicographers, have antagonized it. The doubling has prevailed in Great Britain, and it would be extremely difficult to convince an Englishman that it should not be kept. Dr. Webster rejected it in making his dictionary, and many Americans accepted his change—so many, in fact, that it is not hard to find those who insist that his is the only right method. Dr. Worcester, on the other hand, preserved the English method, and nearly half of the American people, probably, abide by his decision. Thus we have an undivided British practice in this matter, carrying with it about half of America, with the other

American moiety set in the opposite practice. Undoubtedly the Websterian method is the more consistent, for, while it makes no exceptions, the British practice involves at least the striking inconsistency seen in the two spellings *worshipping* and *gossiping*.

Another point of difference between British and American practice is the spelling of certain words with terminal *our* in one country and with *or* in the other. Here the dividing line is more distinctly national. The task of persuading the British people to change their way of spelling these words seems hopeless, and probably no American can be induced to change his way. Undoubtedly the American way is better than the other, historically as well as economically.

"Shall we go to the theatre or to the theater?" asks the article from which our quotation above is taken. Well, the present writer decidedly prefers the theatre, because a majority of English spellers prefer it, and there is no urgent reason against it. In fact, there is more analogy in favor of it than of

the other spelling, and there are instances where it is very convenient to have different representations of different words, even though their sound is identical. It is good to have a meter for a measurer and a metre for a measure. No one has proposed to change terminal *le* to *el*, though that would merely extend the analogical reasoning that leads to *er* instead of *re*.

Shall we have programs or programmes? Here we have better analogy for the simplified form than any that favors changing *theatre*, yet comparatively few people have adopted the short form. Is it because the word is thought to be merely the French word adopted into common English use? Such adoption of *theatre* is incontrovertibly a fact, but the other word might have been taken directly from the Greek, although its use in French actually preceded its English use. No other word like it has so nearly preserved the French form, though every one might as reasonably have done so. If we had to be consistent, and had to have programmes, we should also have

monogrammes. There is no lack of good reason for simplifying our orders of procedure into programs.

A large class of words undergoing transition in Great Britain, and fully corrected in the United States, are those ending in the latter country in *ise*. Some of them are now spelled so in British practice to some extent, and the tendency seems to be toward changing more in this way. Not long ago the *ise* termination was at least almost universal there. This is another point that seems much better settled in the American way.

Our dictionaries record the different systems, and practice is commonly settled by adoption of one system or the other, with a few exceptions. Worcester, for instance, gives *sceptical* the preference over *skeptical*. There is no good reason why it should be so, and the latter form is greatly predominant in practice, especially in the United States. Although Worcester prefers *villany*, that is not as common now, even among those who generally use Worcester's spelling, as *villainy*. Also, *ascend-*

ant and *ascendancy* are better spellings, on the basis of analogy and of present usage, than *ascendent* and *ascendency*. The latest Webster's Dictionary (the International) and the Century Dictionary record really prevalent practice in spelling these two words *-ant* and *-ancy*.

CHAPTER XIV.

LIST OF VARIOUS SPELLINGS.

FOLLOWING are many common and a few uncommon words that are spelled differently by different authorities, excepting words ending in *-able* or *-ible*. As the spelling of the Standard and Century Dictionaries is, with very few exceptions, what is so widely known as the Webster spelling, no special column is given as Webster's, but where this is not so a foot-note explains. As Worcester's is almost the same as the regular English (British) spelling, the Worcester column presents the prevailing usage among nearly if not quite three-fourths of the English-speaking people. There are words not here given that have different spellings, but they are not common words.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
abettor ¹	abetter	abetter
abietine	abietin	abietin
absinthe ²	absinth	absinth
accessary, <i>n.</i> ³	accessary, <i>n.</i>	accessory, <i>a.</i>
accessary, <i>a.</i>	accessory, <i>a.</i>	accessory, <i>a.</i>
accoutre ⁴	accouter	accoutre
accoutrement ⁴	accouterment	accoutrement
Achæan	Achean	Achean
aconitine	aconitin	aconitin
adze	adz	adz
Æolian	Eolian	Eolian
aerie	aerie	aery
æsthetics ⁵	esthetics	esthetics
alantine	alantin	alantin

¹ *Abettor* is a new form introduced in the latest dictionaries because it would be preferable, analogically, for any but legal use. Webster's Unabridged gives only *abettor*, as Worcester does, and all the others say that is the regular spelling in a legal sense. The word is not common in any but legal use.

² This word is in Webster's Unabridged in its French form (*absinthe*), and, in fact, italicized as a foreign word. Webster's International has changed it to *absinth*, as the other lexicographers have done. It does not seem unlikely that Dr. Webster himself would now have favored the short form, but it is not a Webster spelling in the strict sense, as he did not adopt it. With the short form the word should be pronounced as English.

³ Even those who believe in using Worcester's spelling with as little change as possible should now spell this word *accessory* in all uses, as the other form is practically obsolete.

⁴ Webster's spelling is *accouter*, etc.

⁵ Webster's preferred form is *aesthetics*.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
albumen ¹	albumen, -min	albumen, -min
align ²	aline	aline ³
alignment	alinement	alinement
amianthus ⁴	amianth	amiantus
amidine	amidin	amidin
amortise	amortize	amortize
amphitheatre	amphitheater	amphitheater
amyline	amylin	amylin
anæmia ⁴	anemia	anemia
anæsthesia	anesthesia	anæsthesia
anæsthetic	anesthetic	anæsthetic
anæsthetize	anesthetize	anæsthetize
annotto ⁵	annatto	arnotto
antiarine	antiarin	antiarin
antiemetic ⁶	antemetic	antemetic

¹ *Albumen* is a name for the white of an egg, and *albumin* for a chemical substance found chiefly in white of egg, but elsewhere also. The distinction had not been made when Worcester's Dictionary was written, and *albumin* does not appear in that work. Both words are in the later dictionaries.

² *Aline* is preferred also in Murray's large dictionary now in progress in England. Webster prefers *align*.

³ Webster's spelling here is the same as Worcester's.

⁴ Neither Webster nor Worcester records *anemia*, even as being sometimes used. The Century Dictionary, while placing *anemia* as a preferred spelling, says, in its etymological note, "properly *anæmia*." Many similar words are given in the latest American dictionaries in what is called the "simplified" form. Here Webster and Worcester agree.

⁵ This is a curious disagreement, of a kind that does not often occur.

⁶ Here the later lexicographers seem to make a good choice in

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
anthypnotic ¹	antihypnotic	antihypnotic
aphæresis	apheresis	apheresis
aposteme	apostem	apostem
appall	appal	appal
apparellled	appareled	appareled
arabine	arabin	arabin
aræostyle ²	aræostyle	areostyle
arbalest	arbalest	arbalist
archæology ³	archeology	archæology
archeus ⁴	archeus	archæus
arnot	arnut	arnut
arquebuse	arquebus	arquebus
arseniate ⁵	arsenate	arseniate
artocarpeous ⁶	artocarpeous	artocarpous
asafœtida	asafetida	asafetida

favor of a short form that Worcester credits to Johnson. Webster's Unabridged also prefers *antiemetic*.

¹ This word and the one just previously annotated present a curious instance of contradiction in the manner of choosing. In the Century we are told that *anthypnotic* is the same word as *antihypnotic*, "compounded in Greek fashion."

² Here we have another curious conflict in choice. While the Century "simplifies" this word and preserves *archæology*, the Standard preserves *aræostyle* and changes to *archeology*. While they are both commonly different from Worcester in such instances, he writes *archeus*, and the Century has *archæus*. Webster's spelling of these three words is the same as Worcester's.

³ Webster's Unabridged prefers *arseniate*, but *arsenate* is preferred in the International.

⁴ This and the preceding word again show differences in the recent works. In the Webster that is best known *artocarpeous* is the

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
asbestos ¹	asbestos	asbestos
ascendancy ²	ascendency	ascendancy
ascendant	ascendent	ascendant
ashlar	ashlar	ashler
athenæum ³	atheneum	athenæum
aventurine ⁴	aventurin	aventurin
avoset ⁵	avocet	avoset
axe	ax	ax
babiroussa	babiroussa	babirussa
backsheesh ⁶	bakshish	bakshish
bandanna	bandanna	bandana
barrelled	barreled	barreled
basyle ⁷	basyl	basyl
battledoor ⁷	battledore	battledore

preferred form, in the International *artocarpous*. In the Century one of the words is changed from the older spelling, and in the Standard the other is changed.

¹ Webster's spelling is *asbestos*.

² Worcester does not indicate a choice between *ascendancy* and *ascendency*, giving the same definition with each form in its place, though more is given in the second place than in the first. Webster (Unabridged) says *ascendancy* is less common than *ascendency*. The word is from the French *ascendance*, and *ascendancy* is by far the better spelling, agreeing also with other words (as *defendant*) always so spelled.

³ *Atheneum* is Webster's preference; he gives both spellings.

⁴ Webster's spelling is *aventurine*.

⁵ Webster's spelling is *avocet*.

⁶ The old Webster preference is *bakshish*, but the International puts *backsheesh* first.

⁷ Here Webster's spelling agrees with Worcester's.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
bawble ¹	bauble	bauble
benzine ²	benzin	benzin
betuline	betulin	betulin
biassed	biased	biased
binoxide ³	binoxid	binoxid
bismuthine	bismuthin	bismuthin
bistre	bister	bister
bombazette	bombazet	bombazet
boose	booze	booze
braise ⁴	braize	braize
brucine ⁵	brucin	brucine
bryonine ⁶	bryonin	bryonin
buccaneer ⁷	buccaneer	bucaneer
bunn ⁸	bun	bun

¹ Worcester alone of the lexicographers now well known as authorities has this spelling. It seems to have been preserved because Johnson preferred it. Etymology certainly indicates *bauble* as better spelling, and it is nearly always used.

² Worcester and Webster give this form only. The other dictionaries distinguish in sense between *bensine* and *bensone*.

³ Here Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ This is Webster's spelling also.

⁵ Worcester's definition is given with the name *brucia* and Webster's Unabridged defines under *brucina*. Webster's International puts the definition with *brucine* and says, "Called also *brucia* and *brucina*."

⁶ Webster's Unabridged has *bryonine*, but in the International it is *bryonin*.

⁷ Webster agrees with Worcester and the Standard.

⁸ This is one of Worcester's spellings that is little used. *Bun* is much better.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
butyrine	butyrin	butyrin
cæsura ¹	cæsura	cesura
caffeine ²	cafein	caffein
caliph ³	calif	calif
cancelled	canceled	canceled
cantaloupe ⁴	cantaloup	cantaloup
cantilever ⁵	cantilever	cantaliver
caviare ⁶	caviar	caviar
centre	center	center
centred	centered	centered
centring	centering	centering
centigramme	centigram	centigram
centilitre	centiliter	centiliter
chintz ⁷	chints	chintz
chloride ⁸	chlorid	chlorid
chlorine	chlorin	chlorin
clew ⁹	clew	clue

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester and the Standard.

² Webster agrees with Worcester.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ Webster's International agrees with Worcester, but the Unabridged gives, first in order, *cantaloup*, which is certainly little used.

⁵ Both Webster dictionaries prefer *cantalever*.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁷ Webster also gives *chints*. The Standard is the only current dictionary (except Stormonth's) that prefers *chints*, though the Century gives it as an alternative spelling, and the Encyclopædic Dictionary enters it as an obsolete form.

⁸ In this and the next word Webster and Worcester agree.

⁹ *Clue* is prevalent, even among those who commonly adopt

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
clinch	clinch	clench
codeine ¹	codein	codein
coeliac	celiac	celiac
comptroller ²	controller	controller
cordovan ³	cordwain	cordwain
cosey ⁴	cozy	cozy
cotillon ⁵	cotillion	cotillion
courtesan ⁶	courtezan	courtezan
creatine ⁷	creatin	creatin
croset	crosslet	crosslet
cutlass ⁸	cutlas	cutlas
cyclopædia	cyclopedia	cyclopedia

Worcester's spelling, in the most frequent use of the word, as meaning a guiding circumstance or happening. In its literal sense, a guiding thread, *clew* seems better.

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester in this and the next word.

² *Comptroller* is far more used as the title of an official than *controller* is, though *controller* is becoming more common, and is the better form etymologically. Webster and Worcester both give preference to *controller* as meaning merely "one who controls," but both say that *comptroller* is prevalent in the other use.

³ *Cordwain* is given also by Worcester, and, though Webster's Unabridged says it is obsolete, the International gives it the preference. It is now considered the better form.

⁴ It is hard to tell why any one ever wrote this word *cosey*. *Cozy* is certainly much better spelling, and seems to be the original Scotch form.

⁵ Webster also gives *cotillon* as the preferred form.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁷ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁸ Webster gives *cutlass*, though it is said in the Unabridged that "*cutlas* would, from the etymology, be a more correct orthography."

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
decilitre	deciliter	deciliter
defence	defense	defense
deflour ¹	deflower	deflower
delft	delft	delf
diarrhoea	diarrhea	diarrhea
diæresis ²	dieresis	dieresis
disinthrall	disenthral	disenthral
dishevelled	disheveled	disheveled
disseisin	disseizin	disseizin
distrainor	distrainer	distrainer
driveller	driver	driver
dueller	dueler	dueler
duellist	duelist	duelist
dulness ³	dulness	dullness
empale ⁴	empale	impale
empanel	impanel	impanel
empanelled	impaneled	impaneled
empanelling	impaneling	impaneling
enamelled	enameled	enameled
enameller	enameler	enameler
enamelling	enameling	enameling

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester. *Deflower* is far better spelling.

² Webster agrees with Worcester.

³ There seems to be no reason for spelling this word, or any like it, with only one *l*, though it is certainly prevalent in that form. One such word at least (*stillness*) has never been so written. *Dullness* is better spelling. In such words Webster and the Century are alike.

⁴ Webster agree with Worcester and the Standard.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
enamour ¹	enamor	enamour
enclose	enclose	inclose
enclosure	enclosure	inclosure
encyclopædia	encyclopedia	encyclopedia
ensnare ²	ensnare	insnare
eolipile ³	eolipile	æolipile
epaulettes	epauleted	epauleted
epha	ephah	ephah
epidictic ⁴	epidictic	epideictic
equalled	equaled	equaled
equalling	equaling	equaling
etiology ⁵	ætiology	etiology
fæces ⁶	feces	feces
felspar	feldspar	feldspar
foetal	fetal	fetal
foetide	fetide	fetide
foetus	fetus	fetus
fibre	fiber	fiber
fy	fie	fie
filibeg	filibeg	filibeg

¹ Webster's spelling is *enamor*.

² Webster's form is *insnare*.

³ Webster's spelling is *æolipile*.

⁴ Webster prefers *epideictic*.

⁵ A very striking departure from the common preservation of diphthongal spelling by Worcester, that may have been dictated simply by determination to differ from Webster, who preferred *ætiology*.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
floatage ¹	floatage	floatage
fluoride ²	fluorid	fluoride
fluorine	fluorin	fluorin
forray ³	foray	foray
fosse ⁴	foss	foss
foundery ⁵	foundry	foundry
fuelled	fueled	fueled
fuelling	fueling	fueling
fugelman	fugleman	fugleman
fulfil ⁶	fulfil	fulfil
fulness ⁷	fulness	fullness
galeas	galleass	galleass
galoché ⁸	galosh	galosh
gambolled	gamboled	gamboled
gambolling	gamboling	gamboling
gasogene ⁹	gasogen	gazogene

¹ Webster's spelling is *floatage*, like Worcester and Standard.

² *Fluoride* and *fluorine* in Webster. It is hard to find a reason for the conflict in the Century's forms.

³ Webster's Unabridged makes no choice between the two forms of this word. The International prefers *foray*. The Standard and Century say that *forray* is obsolete. *Foray* is undoubtedly the spelling now most used, agreeing with *forage*.

⁴ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁵ Worcester's form of this word is little used, even by his closest followers.

⁶ Webster's spelling is *fulfill*.

⁷ *Fullness* is the Webster spelling.

⁸ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁹ Worcester and Webster agree. The word shows very unusual differences in choice of spelling, the Century coming nearest to real

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
gasteropod ¹	gastropod	gasteropod
gauge ²	gage	gage
gayety ³	gaiety	gaiety
gayly ³	gaily	gaily
gazelle ⁴	gazel	gazel
gelatine ⁵	gelatin	gelatin
gliadine	gliadin	gliadin
globuline	globulin	globulin
glochidate	glochidiate	glochidiate
glycerine	glycerin	glycerin
goitre	goiter	goiter
goldyllocks ⁶	goldilocks	goldilocks
gramme	gram	gram
gravelled	graveled	graveled
gravelling	graveling	graveling
grovelled	groveled	groveled
groveller	groveler	groveler
grovelling	groveling	groveling

preservation of the etymological form, the French word from which it is derived being *gasogène*.

¹ In Webster's Unabridged, *gasteropod*; International, *gastropod*. The shorter form seems better analogically, though the other seems to predominate somewhat in usage.

² Webster agrees with Worcester.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester in these two words.

⁴ *Gazelle* is Webster's preferred spelling also.

⁵ *Gelatin* is said now to be Webster's spelling, but it is not so given in any Webster dictionary preceding the International. This is true of other similar words also.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
grewsome ¹	gruesome	gruesome
guerilla ²	guerrilla	guerrilla
guild ³	gild	gild
gypsy ⁴	gipsy	gipsy
hæmal ⁵	hemal	hemal
hatchelled	hatcheled	hatcheled
hatcheller	hatcheler	hatcheler
hatchelling	hatcheling	hatcheling
hiccough ⁶	hiccup	hiccup
Hindoo ⁷	Hindu	Hindu
Hindooism	Hinduism	Hinduism
hinderance ⁸	hindrance	hindrance

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester. *Gruesome* seems much better, as shown by the Century's list of cognate forms in other languages.

² This is the Spanish diminutive *guerrilla*, literally "a little war," though now used in English only to name an irregular soldier, and no reason appears in support of Worcester's spelling. Lexicographers have chosen some spellings without the slightest support of principle, as *guerilla* and *conferree*, the latter form being the spelling of that word given by Worcester and in the older Webster dictionaries, though it never was better than *referree* or any similar oddity would have been.

³ The later lexicographers here choose the older spelling, *gild*, but it remains to be seen whether *guild* will ever be entirely thrown out of use. Meantime the latter form is as good as it ever was.

⁴ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁵ Words from Greek *αἷμα*, blood, are now generally spelled *hema-*. Even Worcester gives some of them in the simpler spelling.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁷ Webster also spells *Hindoo*, *Hindooism*, but those forms are very little used now.

⁸ This spelling, like *foundery*, has very little acceptance.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
horehound	hoarhound	hoarhound
homœopath	homeopath	homeopath
homœopathic	homeopathic	homeopathic
homœopathy	homeopathy	homeopathy
homonyme ¹	homonym	homonym
hostlery	hostelry	hostelry
hovelled	hoveled	hoveled
hoveller	hoveler	hoveler
hovelling	hoveling	hoveling
humuline	humulin	humulin
hypothenus	hypotenuse	hypotenuse
imperilled	imperiled	imperiled
imperilling	imperiling	imperiling
indigotine	indigotin	indigotin
indine	indin	indin
indiscerpible ²	indiscerpible	indiscerpible
isochimal	isocheimal	isocheimal
jewelled	jeweled	jeweled
jeweller	jeweler	jeweler
jewelling	jeweling	jeweling
Kaffir	Kafir	Kafir
kennelled	kenneled	kenneled
kennelling	kenneling	kenneling

¹ Worcester alone spells *homonyme* and *synonyme* with a final *e*. The words are seldom so spelled now.

² Worcester says the other form is obsolete, Webster and the Standard call both forms obsolete, and the Century treats both as current forms.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
kernelly ¹	kernely	kernely
kidnapped ²	kidnaped	kidnapped
kidnapping	kidnaping	kidnapping
labelled	labeled	labeled
labeller	labeler	labeler
labelling	labeling	labeling
lachrymal ³	lacrima	lacrymal
laurelled	laureled	laureled
levelled	leveled	leveled
leveller	leveler	leveler
levelling	leveling	leveling
libelled	libeled	libeled
libeller	libeler	libeler
libelling	libeling	libeling
libellous	libelous	libelous
Linnæan ⁴	Linnean	Linnean
litre	liter	liter
loadstar ⁵	lodestar	lodestar
loadstone ⁵	lodestone	lodestone

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester, and their spelling is far preferable to the other, although that may be called etymologically regular. In one form the suffix *-ly* is added, and in the other *-y*.

² It can not be said again that no one would spell *kidnaped*, etc., as the Standard has made this innovation.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ Webster agrees with Worcester. It is hard to tell which form is more commonly used. The only obvious reason for the later form, *Linnean*, is one of simplifying.

⁵ Webster agrees with Worcester.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
lodgement ¹	lodgment	lodgment
mamma ²	mama	mama
manœuvre ³	maneuver	manœuvre
marshalled	marshaled	marshaled
marshaller	marshaler	marshaler
marshalling	marshaling	marshaling
martingal ⁴	martingale	martingale
marvelled	marveled	marveled
marvelling	marveling	marveling
marvellous	marvelous	marvelous
meagre ⁵	meager	meager
medalled	medaled	medaled
medalling	medaling	medaling
mediseval ⁶	medieval	medieval
mitre	miter	miter

¹ No good reason appears in favor of this spelling, as it is exceptional, even for Worcester. Dr. James A. H. Murray has expressed an opinion that *acknowledgement* should be the spelling of that word, assuming a principle that would preserve the letter commonly dropped in all such words, and give such spellings as *judgement*, *abridgement*, that were once used, but are not now used.

² Webster agrees with Worcester.

³ Webster's spelling is like that of the Standard. No other change like that of this word in the Century has been attempted. It is a peculiar instance of preservation of one part of the French original and changing of another part.

⁴ This may be an instance of mere alphabeticism by Worcester, as he brackets the two forms. *Martingale* is much commoner.

⁵ *Meagre* is better than *meager*, because *g* is nearly always soft in such a syllable as *-ger* with no consonant following it.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
modelled	modeled	modeled
modeller	modeler	modeler
modelling	modeling	modeling
mortgageor ¹	mortgagor	mortgager
mould	mold	mold
moult	molt	molt
mullein ²	mullein	mullen
moustache	mustache	mustache
nitre	niter	niter
nylghau ³	nilgau	nilgau
ochre	ocher	ocher
ochreous	ocherous	ocherous
odalisk ⁴	odalisk	odalisk
oesophageal	esophageal	esophageal
oesophagus	esophagus	esophagus
offence	offense	offense
oleomargarine ⁵	oleomargarin	oleomargarin
ombre ⁶	omber	ombre
orang-outang	orang-utan	orang-utan

¹ Webster's spelling is the same as Worcester's, and their form seems preferable to any other. It preserves *mortgage* entire and adds the regular legal suffix. The form with *-gor* is especially bad, as *g* is never elsewhere soft before *o*.

² Webster agrees with Worcester and Standard.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ Here is an unusual agreement of the three authorities as opposed to Webster, who preserves the French form, *odalisque*.

⁵ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁶ Webster's spelling is *omber*.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
oriflamb ¹	oriflamme	oriflamme
orthopedic ²	orthopedic	orthopædic
otolite	otolith	otolith
ottar	attar	attar
oxide ³	oxid	oxid
pacha	pasha	pasha
palæstra	palestra	palestra
panelled	paneled	paneled
panelling	paneling	paneling
pappoose	papoose	papoose
paraffine ⁴	paraffin	paraffin
parcelled	parceled	parceled
parceller	parceler	parceler
parcelling	parceling	parceling
parquet ⁵	parrakeet	parrakeet

¹ This seems to be an instance of mere alphabeticism. Both Worcester and Webster bracket *oriflamb* and *oriflamme*, in this order. The latter is the form most used.

² This word and the allied words show an unusual agreement in change from the etymological form on the part of three authorities, and an unusual preservation by the fourth. The difference in spelling involves a difference in pronunciation in one of the words, the Century and Standard pronouncing *or'tho-pæ-dy*, while the others say *or-tho-p'e-dy*.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ The older Webster dictionaries gave *paraffine* only, but the International prefers *paraffin*, saying, however, that *paraffine* is still the commercial spelling.

⁵ In Webster's Unabridged *parquet* is preferred, but the latest Webster editors have changed the preference to *parrakeet*.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
partisan ¹	partizan	partizan
patchouly	patchouli	patchouli
pedler ²	pedler	peddler
pemican	pemmican	pemmican
pencilled	penciled	penciled
penciller	penciler	penciler
pencilling	penciling	penciling
perilled	periled	periled
perilling	periling	periling
peroxide ³	peroxid	peroxid
petroline ⁴	petrolin	petrolin
phenyle	phenyl	phenyl
phœnix	phenix	phenix
pecul	picul	picul
piepowder ⁵	piepoudre	piepowder
pinchers ⁶	pincers	pincers
pistolled	pistoled	pistoled
pistolling	pistolng	pistolng

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester.

² An etymological oddity. The verb *peddle* is called in the Century "a back-formation from *peddler*," the noun being the earlier word, but now taken as *peddle* and *-er*. *Peddler* is the best spelling anyway. Webster also prefers it.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁵ *Piepoudre* is the Webster International spelling, but in the Unabridged no real choice is made.

⁶ Webster also gives *pinchers*, but undoubtedly *pincers* is more used.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
plat ¹	plot	plot
plough	plow	plow
pluviometer	pluviometer	pluviometer
polype	polyp	polyp
pretence	pretense	pretense
prætor	pretor	pretor
programme	program	program
ptyaline ²	ptyalin	ptyalin
pur ³	purr	purr
pyæmia ⁴	pyemia	pyemia
quarrelled	quarreled	quarreled
quarreller	quarreler	quarreler
quarrelling	quarreling	quarreling
raccoon ⁵	raccoon	raccoon
rajah ⁶	raja	raja
rattan ⁷	rattan	ratan
reconnaissance ⁸	reconnaissance	reconnaissance
reconnoitre	reconnoiter	reconnoiter

¹ For a small piece of ground ; Webster also prefers *plat*.

² In Webster's Unabridged, *ptyaline*; in the International, *ptyalin*.

³ Both Webster and Worcester give *purr* for the sound made by a cat, but *purr* is certainly more common.

⁴ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁵ The Century alone prefers *raccoon*.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁷ The Webster spelling also is *rattan*.

⁸ Webster agrees with Worcester. The other form is the present French spelling.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
redoubt ¹	redout	redout
rearmouse ²	reremouse	reremouse
revelled	reveled	reveled
reveller	reveler	reveler
revelling	reveling	reveling
revery	reverie	reverie
rivalled	rivaled	rivaled
rivalling	rivaling	rivaling
rotundo ³	rotunda	rotunda
rowelled	roweled	roweled
sabre	saber	saber
salam ⁴	salaam	salaam
saltpetre	saltpeter	saltpeter
sanhedrim ⁵	sanhedrin	sanhedrim
Sanscrit ⁶	Sanskrit	Sanskrit
sarcenet ⁷	sarsenet	sarsenet
saviour ⁸	savior	savior

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester. The *δ* was not in the word originally, and the latest lexicographers have adopted the original form. The form with *δ* is the current one.

² Webster agrees with Worcester.

³ *Rotundo* preserves the terminal letter of the Italian *rotondo*, given by Worcester as the etymon, but the spelling is very little used now, if it is used at all.

⁴ Webster also spells the word so.

⁵ The Webster Unabridged prefers *sanhedrim*, but the International editors reverse the preference.

⁶ The Worcester spelling of this word has little currency now.

⁷ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁸ Seldom spelled *savior*, being a peculiar case of preservation of an old spelling.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
scath ¹	scathe	scathe
sceptic ²	skeptic	skeptic
sceptre	scepter	scepter
Sedlitz	Seidlitz	Seidlitz
seleniuretted	seleniureted	seleniureted
Shemitic	Semitic	Semitic
septaemia ³	septemia	septemia
Shakespearian ⁴	Shakespearian	Shaksperian
shovelled	shoveled	shoveled
shoveller	shoveler	shoveler
shovelling	shoveling	shoveling
shrivelled	shriveled	shriveled
shrivelling	shriveling	shriveling

¹ *Scath* seems to have been made by Johnson. Before his time the word was *scathe*, as it is now. Worcester tried to keep alive a number of Johnsonian oddities, but did not always succeed.

² Johnson seems to have been the first to spell this word with a *k*, and it is one instance where his oddity was in the line of strongest reason. *Skeptic* is far better etymologically and analogically, as it comes from Greek, and English orthoëpy makes *c* soft in syllables with *sc*, with this single exception on the part of those who persist in using the absurd spelling *sceptic*. Dr. Worcester found in it a good opportunity to differ from Webster.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ Webster's spelling is *Shakespearean*, and the latest Webster editors retain it. Shakespeare's name has been spelled in many ways, and the adjective has differed accordingly. In the Century's etymological note it is said that the proper modern spelling of the name should be *Shakespeare*. The spellings most used seem to be *Shakespeare* and *Shakespearian*, though *Shakspeare*, etc., are now used by many scholars.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
silicious ¹	silicious	silicious
sillabub ²	sillibub	sillibub
skilful ³	skilful	skilful
smoulder	smolder	smolder
sombre	somber	somber
somerset	somersault	somersault
spancelled	spanceled	spanceled
spectre	specter	specter
stencilled	stenciled	stenciled
stenciller	stenciler	stenciler
stencilling	stenciling	stenciling
synæresis ⁴	syneresis	syneresis
synonyme	synonym	synonym
tarpauling ⁵	tarpaulin	tarpaulin
tasselled	tasseled	tasseled
tasselling	tasseling	tasseling
Tartar ⁶	Tatar	Tatar

¹ Webster prefers *siliceous*. Worcester says: "The orthography of *silicious* is that which is found in nearly or quite all the common English dictionaries; but that of *siliceous* is more common in works of science." This is not quite as true now as it was when written, but *siliceous* seems to be the better spelling, because it is more like the etymon, Latin *siliceus*.

² Webster agrees with Worcester. The Standard and Century form is better etymologically.

³ The Webster spelling is *skillful*.

⁴ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁵ Worcester's form of this word has little currency, if any.

⁶ Webster's preference is the same as Worcester's, but the other form is now probably more used by scholars.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
teasel ¹	teazel	teazel
teaselled	teazeled	teazeled
teaseller	teazeler	teazeler
teaselling	teazeling	teazeling
tendrilled	tendriled	tendriled
theatre	theater	theater
tinselled	tinseled	tinseled
tinselling	tinseling	tinseling
tidbit ²	titbit	titbit
tourmaline ³	tourmalin	tourmalin
towelled	toweled	toweled
towelling	toweling	toweling
trammelled	trammeled	trammeled
trammelling	trammeling	trammeling
tranquillize	tranquelize	tranquelize
transship ⁴	tranship	tranship
travelled	traveled	traveled
traveller	traveler	traveler
travelling	traveling	traveling
trowelled	troweled	troweled
trowelling	troweling	troweling
tunnelled	tunneled	tunneled

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester.

² Webster's preference is the same as Worcester's, but *titbit* seems better etymologically and more used.

³ Webster agrees with Worcester.

⁴ Webster agrees with Worcester.

<i>Worcester.</i>	<i>Standard.</i>	<i>Century.</i>
tunnelling	tunneling	tunneling
turnsole ¹	turnsole	turnsol
tsetze	tsetse	tsetse
varvelled	varveled	varveled
victualled	victualed	victualed
victualler	victualer	victualer
victualling	victualing	victualing
villanous	villainous	villainous
villany ²	villainy	villainy
vice (a clamp)	vise	vise
whiskey	whisky	whisky
witch-hazel ³	wich-hazel	witch-hazel
woe ⁴	wo	woe
woful ⁵	woful	woeful
woollen	woolen	woolen
worshipped	worshiped	worshiped
worshipper	worshiper	worshiper
worshipping	worshipping	worshipping
zinciferous ⁶	zinkiferous	zinkiferous

¹ Webster agrees with Worcester.

² The Century Dictionary, although it gives *villainy* as the current spelling, says: "The proper etymological spelling is *villany*, the form *villainy* . . . being erroneously conformed to the noun *villain*, in which the diphthong has a historical basis."

³ Webster's spelling is *wyck-hazel*.

⁴ Webster's spelling is *woe*.

⁵ Webster's preference is *woful*, like Worcester and the Standard.

⁶ Webster agrees with Worcester.

CHAPTER XV.

WORDS ENDING IN -ABLE AND -IBLE.

ADJECTIVES having the terminations *-able* and *-ible* are derived in three ways, and the spelling varies accordingly.

Some are mere Anglicized spellings of Latin adjectives, and these preserve the Latin vowel in the penult. Thus we have *accusable*, from *accusabilis*, and *accessible*, from *accessibilis*.

Some are unchanged from Romance words (French, Italian, etc.), as *accostable*, *respectable*, but came into those languages from Latin, so that they might well enough be classed with the preceding category.

Some are made by adding a suffix to an English verb, and these are nearly if not quite always spelled *-able*. Thus, *abatable* is *abate* and *-able*. Words made in this way from verbs of

two syllables ending with *-ate* preserve the verb entire, except the terminal *e*, but the last syllable of the verb is usually dropped in making the adjective from a longer word, as in *affiliable*, from *affiliate*.

The following is a reasonably full list of common words with these terminations:

abatable	accusable	advanceable
abdicable	accustomable	advisable
abolishable	achievable	affable
abominable	acidifiable	affiliable
abrogable	acquirable	affirmable
absolvable	actable	affordable
absorbable	actionable	aggrandizable
abusable	adaptable	agitable
acceptable	addable ¹	agreeable
accessible	adducible	alienable
acclaimable	adjustable	alkalifiable
acclimatable	administrable	alkalizable
accommodable	admirable	allegeable
accomplishable	admissible	allotable
accordable	admittable ²	allowable
accostable	adoptable	alterable
accountable	adorable	amalgamable

¹ Worcester prefers *addible*.

² Worcester gives only *admittible*, which is not good spelling.

amassable
ameliorable
amenable
amendable
amerceable
amiable
amicable
amusable
analyzable
anchorable
annexable
annihilable
answerable
appealable
appeasable
appliable
applicable
appointable
appreciable
apprehensible
approachable
appropriable
approvable
arable
arbitrable
arguable
argumentable

ascendible
ascertainable
ascribable
aspectable
assailable
assaultable
assessable
assignable
assimilable
associable
atonable
attachable
attackable
attainable
attemptable
attractable
attributable
audible
augmentable
authorizable
available
avoidable
avouchable
avowable
bailable
bankable
baptizable

batable
bearable
beggable
believable
bendable
bequeathable
bewailable
bipartible
blamable
boardable
boatable
bounceable
breakable
breathable
burstable
buyable
calcinable
calculable
capable
carriable
carriageable
catchable
causable
censurable
challengeable
changeable
chargeable

charitable	collatable	compellable
chastisable	collectable ²	compliant
cheatable	colorable	compoundable
circulable	combatable	comprehensible
circumnavigable	combinable	compressible
circumscribable	combustible	computable
citable	comfortable	concealable
civilizable	commandable	conceivable
claimable	commensurable	concordable
classable ¹	commemorable	concrescible
classifiable	commendable	condemnable
cleansable	commensurable	condensable
cleavable	committable ³	conducibile
clergyable	commonable	conductible
climbable	communicable	conferrable
coagulable	communionable	confinable
coercible	commutable	confirmable
cogitable	compactible	confiscable
cognizable	companionable	conformable
cognoscible	comparable	confusable
cohesible	compassable	confutable
coinable	compatible	congealable

¹ Worcester and Webster spell *classible*.

² Worcester and Webster both spell *collectible*. The other form is preferred in the Century and Standard Dictionaries, and is better.

³ Webster's Unabridged gives only *committible*, which is also Worcester's spelling; but the International says it is rare, while the Century calls it obsolete, and both give the other form as current.

congratulable	conversable	customable
conjecturable	convertible	damageable
conjugable	conveyable	damnable
conquerable	convincible	debatable
conscionable	copiable	deceivable
consentable	correctable ¹	decidable
conservable	corrigible	decipherable
considerable	corrodible	declarable
consolable	corrosible	declinable
constrainable	corruptible	decomposable
consultable	countable	decompoundable
consumable	countermandable	decreeable
containable	couplable	deducible
contaminable	covetable	deductible
contemplable	creatable	defeasible
contemptible	credible	defectible
conterminable	creditable	defensible
contestable	criticisable	definable
continuable	crummable	deflagable
contractible	crystallizable	deformable
contradictable	culpable	delayable
contributable	cultivable	delectable
contrivable	cultivable	deliverable
controllable	culturable	deludable
controvertible	curable	demandable

¹ This is the better spelling, though Worcester and the Webster Unabridged do not give it.

demisable	differentiable	disserviceable
demonstrable	diffusible	dissociable
deniable	digestible	dissolvable
denominable	diggable	distensible
denotable	dilatable	distillable
denunciable	diminishable	distinguishable
dependable	disagreeable	distractible
deplorable	disallowable	distrainable
deposable	discernible	distributable
deprecable	disciplinable	diversifiable
deprivable	discountable	divertible
derivable	discourageable	dividable
descendible	discoverable	divisible
describable	discreditable	divorceable ¹
designable	dishonorable	doubtable
desirable	disintegrable	dowable
despicable	dispensable	drainable
destructible	displaceable	dramatizable
detachable	displeasurable	drawable
detectable	disposable	drinkable
determinable	disproportionable	dubitable
detestable	disprovable	dupable
developable	disputable	durable
devisable	disreputable	dutiable
dialyzable	dissectible	eatable

¹ Worcester gives only *divorcible*, but all the other dictionaries prefer *divorceable*.

educable ¹	escapable	expirable
educible ¹	escheatable	explainable
effaceable	estimable	explicable
effervescent	evaporable	exportable
electrifiable	evincible	expressible
electrolyzable	examinable	expungeable
eludible	exceptionable	extendible
embraceable	exchangeable	extensible
emendable	excisable	extinguishable
employable	excitable	extirpable
emulable	excommunicable	extractable ²
endable	exculpable	extricable
endurable	excusable	exuviable
enforceable ³	execrable	fallible
Englishable	exemplifiable	falsifiable
enjoyable	exemptible	farmable
enticeable	exercisable	fashionable
entreatable	exhalable	fathomable
enunciative	exhaustible	favorable
enviable	exorable	feasible
equitable	expansible	fellable
eradicable	expectable	fencible
erasable	expellable	fermentable
erectable	expiable	fertilizable

¹ The first of these words is from *educate*, the second from *educer*.

² All the dictionaries except Worcester's give also *enforcible*.

³ *Extractible* is Worcester's form.

figurable	generable	illapsable
finable	generalizable	illaudable
fishable	gettable	illegible
fixable	governable	illimitable
flexible	grantable	illuminable
fluctuable	graspable	illustrable
fluxible	guardable	imaginable
forcible	guerdonable	imitable
fordable	guessable	immalleable
forfeitable	guidable	immeasurable
forgivable	gullible	immedicable
formidable	habitable	immemorable
fortifiable	handleable	immensurable
framable	hatable	immersable ¹
frangible	hazardable	immiscible
friable	healable	immitigable
frightenable	heritable	immovable
fundable	honorable	immutable
fungible	horrible	impalpable
furbishable	hospitable	impartible
fusible	husbandable	impassable ²
gainable	hybridizable	impassible
gaugeable	identifiable	impassionable
gelable	ignitable	impeachable

¹ Also *immersible*, but the other is better.

² *Impassable* means "that can not be passed"; *impassible*, "not capable of feeling or suffering."

impeccable	inaccessible	incompensable
impedible	inadmissible	incompliable
impenetrable	inaffable	incomprehensible
imperceptible	inalienable	incompressible
imperformable	inamovable	incomputable
imperishable	inappealable	inconcealable
impermeable	inapplicable	inconceivable
imperturbable	inappreciable	incondensable
imperviable	inapprehensible	incongealable
implacable	inapproachable	inconsiderable
implausible	inarable	inconsolable
impliable	inaudible	inconsumable
imponderable	incalculable	incontestable
importable	incapable	incontrovertible
imposable	incensurable	inconvertible
impossible	incinerable	incorrigible
impracticable	inclinable	incorruptible
impregnable	incoagulable	increasable
imprescriptible	incogitable	incredible
impressible	incognizable	inculpable
impressionable	incombustible	incurable
impreventable	incommensurable	indecimable
improbable	incommiscible	indecipherable
improvable	incommunicable	indeclinable
impugnable	incommutable	indecomposable
imputable	incomparable	indefatigable
imputrescible	incompatible	indefeasible

indefensible	ineffervescible	inflatable
indefinable	ineligible	ingelable
indelectable	ineludible	ingenerable
indelible	inequitable	inhabitable
indemonstrable	ineradicable	inheritable
indeprecable	inestimable	inhospitable
indeprivable	inevitable	inimaginable
indescribable	inevitable	inimitable
indesirable	inexcitable	irritable
indestructible	inexcusable	innavigable
indeterminable	inexecutable	innumerable
indictable	inexhaustible	inobservable
indigestible	inexorable	inoculable
indiscernible	inexpansible	inoxidizable
undiscoverable	inexpiable	inquirable
indispensable	inexplicable	insanable
indisputable	inexplorable	insatiable
undissolvable	inexpressible	insaturable
indistinguishable	inexpugnable	inscribable
indivisible	inexsuperable	inscrutable
indocible	inexterminable	insecable
indomitable	inextinguishable	inseparable
indubitable	inextirpable	inseverable
inducible	inextricable	insolvable
ineffable	inferable ¹	inspirable
ineffaceable	inflammable	instable

¹ Worcester prefers *inferrible*, but the later authorities do not.

insufferable	invulnerable	irreprovable
insultable	irascible	irresistible
insuperable	irrebuttable	irresolvable
insupportable	irreclaimable	irrespirable
insupposable	irrecognizable	irresponsible
insurable	irreconcilable	irresuscitable
insurmountable	irrecordable	irretraceable
intastable	irrecoverable	irretrievable
intenable	irrecuperable	irreturnable
interchangeable	irredeemable	irrevealable
intercommunicable	irreducible	irreversible
interminable	irrefragable	irrevocable
interpolable	irrefrangible	irrigable
interpretable	irrefutable	irritable
intestable	irrejectable	isolable
intolerable	irrelievable	issuable
intractable	irremeable	judicable
intransmutable	irremediable	justiciable
invaluable	irremovable	justifiable
invariable	irremunerable	knittable
inventible	irreparable	knowable
invertible	irrepealable	lacerable
investigable	irrepleviable	lamentable
invincible	irreprehensible	laminable
inviolable	irrepresentable	lapsable
invisible	irrepressible	laudable
invitrifiable	irreproachable	laughable

learnable	marcescible	mutable
leasable	marketable	namable
legible	marriageable	navigable
lendable	masticable	negligible
leviable	measurable	negotiable
levigable	medicable	notable
liable	memorable	noticeable
licensable	mendable	nourishable
liftable	mensurable	numerable
likable	mentionable	objectionable
limitable	merchantable	obligable
liquable	miscible	observable
liquefiable	miserable	obtainable
litigable	misinterpretable	offerable
loanable	mistakable	omissible
lodgeable	mitigable	opposable
losable	mixable	ordainable
lovable	modifiable	orderable
magnifiable	moldable	organizable
mailable	mollifiable	originable
mainpernable	mootable	ostensible
maintainable	mountable	overcapable
malleable	movable	oxidable
manageable	multipliable	oxidizable
manifestable ¹	multiplicable	oxygenizable

¹ *Manifestible* is recorded in all the dictionaries, but not preferred in any.

palatable	persuadable	predeterminable
palpable	persuasible	predicable
pardonable	pervertible	preferable
partible ¹	picturable	pregnable
passable ²	pierceable	prehensible
passible ³	pitiable	preparable
pasturable	placable	prescriptible
patentable	plantable	presentable
pawnable	plausible	preservable
payable	pleadable	prestable
peaceable	pleasurable	presumable
peccable	pliable	preventable
penetrable	ploughable	probable
perceivable	poisonable	procurable
perceptible	polarizable	producible
perdurable	polishable	productible
performable	polysyllable	profitable
perishable	ponderable	prognosticable
permeable	portable	prolongable
permissible	possible	pronounceable
permutable	potable	propagable
perpetuable	powerable	proportionable
personable	practicable	proratable
perspirable	precipitable	prosecutable

¹ *Partable* is used, but is not so good etymologically.

² *Passable* means "that may be passed"; *passible*, "capable of feeling or suffering."

protrudable	commendable	removable
protrusible	reconcilable	remunerable
provable	recoverable	renderable
provokable	rectifiable	rendible
publishable	redeemable	renewable
pulverable	redemptible	rentable
pulverizable	redoubtable	reobtainable
punishable	redressible	reparable
purchasable	reducible	repayable
pursuable	referable ¹	repealable
putrescible	reflectible	repleviable
qualifiable	reflexible	replevisable
quenchable	refrangible	reprehensible
questionable	refusable	representable
quotable	refutable	reproachable
raisable	regrettable	reprovable
ratable	reissuable	repudiable
reachable	rejectable	reputable
readable	relaxable	rescindable
realizable	releasable	rescuable
reasonable	reliable	resistible
rebukable	relievable	resolvable
recallable	relishable	respectable
receivable	remarkable	respirable
reclaimable	remediable	responsible
recognizable	remissible	restorable

¹ *Referrible* is now little used.

restrainable
resumable
resuscitable
retainable
retractable
retrievable
returnable
revealable
revengeable
reversible
revertible
reviewable
revivable
revocable
rewardable
risible
rollable
ruinable
rulable
sailable
salable
salifiable
salvable
sanable
saponifiable
satisfiable
saturable

savable
scalable
searchable
seasonable
securable
seducible
seizable
sensible
separable
sequestrable
servable
serviceable
shapable
shiftable
sizable
sociable
solvable
sortable
soundable
spoilable
squeezeable
statable
statutable
suable
sublimable
subscribable
succorable

sufferable
suitable
supportable
supposable
suppressible
surmountable
surpassable
suspensible
sustainable
tamable
tangible
tannable
tastable
taxable
teachable
tellable
temperable
temptable
tenable
tenantable
terminable
terrible
testable
thinkable
tillable
tithable
tolerable

tollable	unaidable	unmerchantable
torturable	unamiable	unmeritable
touchable	unanswerable	unmistakable
traceable	unappealable	unpassable
tractable	unapproachable	unpeaceable
trainable	unaskable	unpeerable
transferable ¹	unavoidable	unprofitable
transformable	uncharitable	unquestionable
transfusible	uncleanable	unreasonable
translatable	uncomfortable	unrebukable
transmissible	unconformable	unreckonable
transmutable	unconscionable	unreconcilable
transpirable	uncontrollable	unreliable
transportable	undaunting	unreprovable
transposable	undeniable	unsalable
traversable	undividable	unsearchable
treasonable	unexceptionable	unseasonable
treatable	unextinguishable	unsociable
triable	unfashionable	unspeakable
triturable	unfathomable	unstatable
tunable	unfavorable	unsuitable
ulcerable	unforgettable	unutterable
unacceptable	ungovernable	unwarrantable
unaccountable	unimpeachable	unwedgeable
unadvisable	unitable	usable
unagreeable	unknowable	utterable

¹ *Transferrible* is now little used.

valuable
vanquishable
vaporable
vaporizable
variable
veerable
vegetable
vendible
venerable
verifiable

veritable
viable
vincible
vindicable
violable
visible
visitable
vitrescible
vitrifiable
voidable

volatilizable
voyageable
vulnerable
warrantable
washable
wearable
weighable
weldable
wieldable
workable

CHAPTER XVI.

CHOICE OF FORMS IN SPELLING.

ORTHOGRAPHY is purely conventional, depending entirely upon human choice. Many words are spelled differently by different people, and probably always will be, because in some instances neither of two actual principles can truly be said to be the only one or positively the better one to apply. When English spelling began to assume what may be called its permanent form—for as a whole it is and long has been fixed—certain distinctions were made, based on analogous reasoning, some of which have not been universally preserved. In some of the few changes that have been generally adopted we have made real gains, as in dropping the *k* from words like *musick*. The economy of this change was so obvious that it could not be withstood.

In the case of another set of words there are powerful reasons against changing them from their first fixed form, notwithstanding the apparent economy of dropping a letter. These are the inflections of verbs in which a final consonant was—and most frequently is—doubled in adding a syllable. An article in the *Leisure Hour*, an English magazine, deals mainly with such words. It is entitled “A Fidgety Question in Spelling,” and was called, in a note in one of our leading critical periodicals, an exhaustive monograph, though it is far from being exhaustive. It is a strange article to come from an English pen, as it throws aside one of the characteristic universal British practices in spelling, in the following paragraph:

“‘Don’t be fidgety,’ she wrote; then she paused and considered; then on the edge of her blotting-pad she scribbled down *fidgetty*; then compared the two forms with a critical balance of examination; and finally adopted the two-*t*-ed variant. And she was wrong! And maybe you ask ‘Why?’ Because, good

madam, or good sir, a word of two syllables ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, before the addition of such suffixes as *ed*, *er*, *ing*, *y*, doubles the final consonant. 'Just so!' you exclaim, 'and so *it* was right.' Nay, but hear me out—doubles the final consonant only when the accent is on the last syllable of the word, *not otherwise*."

The rule here given ignores one of the plainest facts of British practice, namely, that many of the words covered by it are always spelled with the consonant doubled. Such spelling is rather exceptional than rulable, however, and practice is not consistent throughout. Even the writer of the rule quoted does not say that his hypothetical lady would have been wrong in writing *jewelled*, or *travelling*, or *worshipper*, and yet his "not otherwise," if true, would make these spellings wrong. Good reason in favor of the doubling is that the single consonant might make people think the vowel preceding it was long instead of short; and the reasoning is good in so far as the doubling of the conso-

nant certainly fixes the fact of the short vowel beyond question. Of course, though, this would be as true of one such word as it would of any other.

Doubling of consonants in some words of the kind we are considering is held by many writers to mark a valuable distinction in pronunciation, and it is the spelling that a majority of English-speaking persons have learned and know as the right spelling. Certainly no one can truthfully say that it is wrong. It is to be regretted that some flagrant inconsistencies have always existed, and it would be well even now for those who write *worshipped* to add the letter in all similar words and write also *gossipped*, etc., which has never yet been considered correct.

Much stress is laid upon simplification in the arguments supporting changes of spelling, but always with reference merely to the use of the least possible number of letters. So restricted, the term names something not nearly as well adapted to usefulness as another kind of simplification, namely, a system that makes

clear distinctions of form based upon real differences of principle. Thus we would choose *spelled* for the participle, and never use *spelt* for it. In the article already quoted from the participle is spelled both ways in exactly the same use; and this is an unnecessary and bothering inconsistency, to say the least.

Another word in the magazine containing this article is badly spelled, though in a way that is not uncommon. It is the past participle of *stay*. A very useful distinction, that is well established, though not so widely adopted as it should be, is that the adjective should be *staid* (meaning settled or established in a certain manner), and the past participle should be *stayed*; thus, "We stayed in company with the staid person." We could find analogy for the contrary usage in our spelling *paid*, the other form being never used for this word; but most words like these never change the *y* to *i*. We never use *swaid* for *swayed*, for instance. These are words, especially the first one, that never can be affected by the

proposed phonetic reform, but with regard to which it would be convenient to have one form universally used, and the other universally rejected.

Many other distinctions commonly made in spelling are convenient, and it is to be regretted that so many people fail to preserve them. Probably the useful distinctions would be more generally understood and applied if some useless ones were dropped. An attempt is made to differentiate *further* and *farther*, successfully sometimes, but by no means always. Reasonable practice would drop the latter of the two forms altogether, because it is not a well-made word, while the other is regular in formation, with nothing unusual in its composition, but presenting an example of natural mutation in its first vowel. Some people say *dreamed* and others *dreamt*; *leaped* and *leapt* are both used; so are *toward* and *towards*, and other words with the same termination. As matters now are, a choice in any of these instances must depend upon personal preference merely, as neither one of any pair

may properly be called wrong. However, it would certainly be advantageous to decide upon a general choice, and one may be permitted to express the opinion that the best choice would favor the widest analogy.

CHAPTER XVII.

PHONETIC SPELLING.

MANY of our foremost philologists have expressed strong advocacy of radical changes in our spelling, and it is not to be supposed that they have acted hastily; but there is good ground for thinking that they have not sufficiently recognized some of the most powerful reasons for not making such sweeping changes as those proposed. Professor F. A. March, of Lafayette College, is one of the prominent "spelling-reformers," and made the following assertion: "English spelling needs simplifying. One-sixth of the letters on a common printed page are silent or misleading. Complete simplification would save one-sixth of the cost of books and of the time of writing."

No such saving would result. Even with

one-sixth of the pages omitted from a book, the binding would cost nearly as much, and sometimes fully as much, as for the larger number of pages. But the saving in letterpress would seldom amount to so much.

One paragraph of twenty-one lines in the report from which we quote, which is printed with the changes advocated by Professor March, would not make more than twenty-two lines in our common spelling. It may be safely asserted that very few ordinary chapters in books would be shortened even one-twelfth by omitting all silent letters. Most of the lines would simply take a little more space between words.

Of course our orthography presents many difficulties to the learner, as much of it is really arbitrary, and must be learned by mere memorizing. Many sounds are each represented by a number of different letters or combinations of letters, and all the vowels and some combinations represent each a number of sounds. From the effort to reduce this confusion the proposed new system takes its

name, phonetic spelling. The ultimate object of the reformers is simplification, by removing all silent letters, by representing each sound as far as possible always by the same letter or letters, and by restoring historical forms that have been changed.

Probably the most effective opposition to the change lies in the common aversion to such radical departure from long-established custom; and this is why the philological associations have proposed a partial substitution of new forms to begin with, intending to make more of them after those first offered have become common.

A list has been made, and published in two large dictionaries, and this list may serve a good purpose by giving examples in support of objection to its general adoption. It is accompanied with a set of rules, some of which we will mention, beginning with the first, which is as follows: "Drop silent *e* when fonetically useless (writing *-er* for *-re*), as in *live* (liv), *single* (singl), *eaten* (eatn), *rained* (raind), etc., *theatre* (theater), etc."

This rule has been closely applied in making the list of words, and is evidently intended for general application. Some of the spellings indicated are already common in the United States; others are not common anywhere, and there is good reason why they should not be. Phonetic principle alone is the basis of such spelling as *livd* for *lived*, and that is not a principle that should prevail against the one that gives the present spelling. Another rule is involved here: "Change *d* and *ed* final to *t* when so pronounced, as in *looked* (lookt), etc., unless the *e* affects the preceding sound, as in *chafed*, etc."

We now have one suffix for all these words, and the new rules would give us three. True simplification seems much better exemplified in present practice than in that proposed. Why not *chafet* instead of *chafed*, as well as the other changes? It would certainly be more consistent. However, there is no need of change even for the phonetic reason, since the terminal consonant becomes *t* in sound merely because the *d* sound is not easily

producible immediately after another consonant.

The following spellings are in the list (we give also those in place of which they are suggested):

adl (addle)	batl (battle)	bubl (bubble)
apl (apple)	bogl (boggle)	catl (cattle)
babl (babble)	botl (bottle)	cobl (cobble)
bafl (baffle)	britl (brittle)	cripl (cripple)

Here is the rule for these: "Dubl consonants may be simplified when fonetically useless." But in the words above, and many more like them, the double consonants are not phonetically useless. They serve to show that the vowel in the first syllable has what we call the short sound, and not the long one, just as the vowel preserved in the exception under the second rule quoted serves to show that the other vowel in the word is long.

The rules prescribe the changing of *s* to *z* when so sounded, "especially in distinctiv words," as it is expressed. One may well ask what is meant by "distinctiv words," as there

is no definite indication in the term. In the list a number of words appear without the change, which it seems should be made uniformly if at all.

Exhaustive treatment of the subject can not be attempted in a single short chapter like this, and the intention is merely to present a few prominent points that are thought to illustrate reasonable objection to most of the changes proposed. Some spellings in the list are really corrections, or reversions to forms that have been lost by actual corruption; and it seems that this fact must have misled some of our scholars.

Professor W. D. Whitney says, in the *Century Dictionary*: "It need not be said in this dictionary that the objections brought on etymological and literary and other grounds against the correction of English spelling are the unthinking expressions of ignorance and prejudice. All English etymologists are in favor of the correction of English spelling, both on etymological grounds and on the higher ground of the great service it will render to

national education and international intercourse."

Some actual reversions to original forms would be the adoption of *iland* instead of *isl-land*, *rime* instead of *rhyme*, *crum*, *dum*, *num*, etc., instead of *crumb*, etc. These would be etymological corrections, as well as phonetic spellings. Whether they will ever again be widely adopted as correct English spellings or not is an open question, with the weight of experience on the negative side. Noah Webster tried to "correct" *bridegroom* to *bridegoom*, but could not, and it is not unlikely that the people will insist upon keeping all the corruptions that have become fully established.

Most of the proposed changes have no support etymologically, but are dictated by what may be called a mere whim that would substitute an unfamiliar set of principles for others that are familiar, and probably no harder to learn than the new ones would be. Even one of the most famous of the "reformers," Dr. James A. H. Murray, formerly President of the Philological Society of England,

has recently expressed himself publicly as in favor of spelling *acknowledgment*, etc., with another *e*, *acknowledgement*, etc., which is not at all in keeping with the professed desire to drop silent letters.

Most of our silent letters are used for a reasonable purpose, that need not be explained here, and nearly everything that is objected to in our present spelling was originally adopted for a good reason, that is as good now as it ever was. English orthography as it is has withstood many assaults, and as a whole it probably will not yield any more hereafter than it has yielded in the past.

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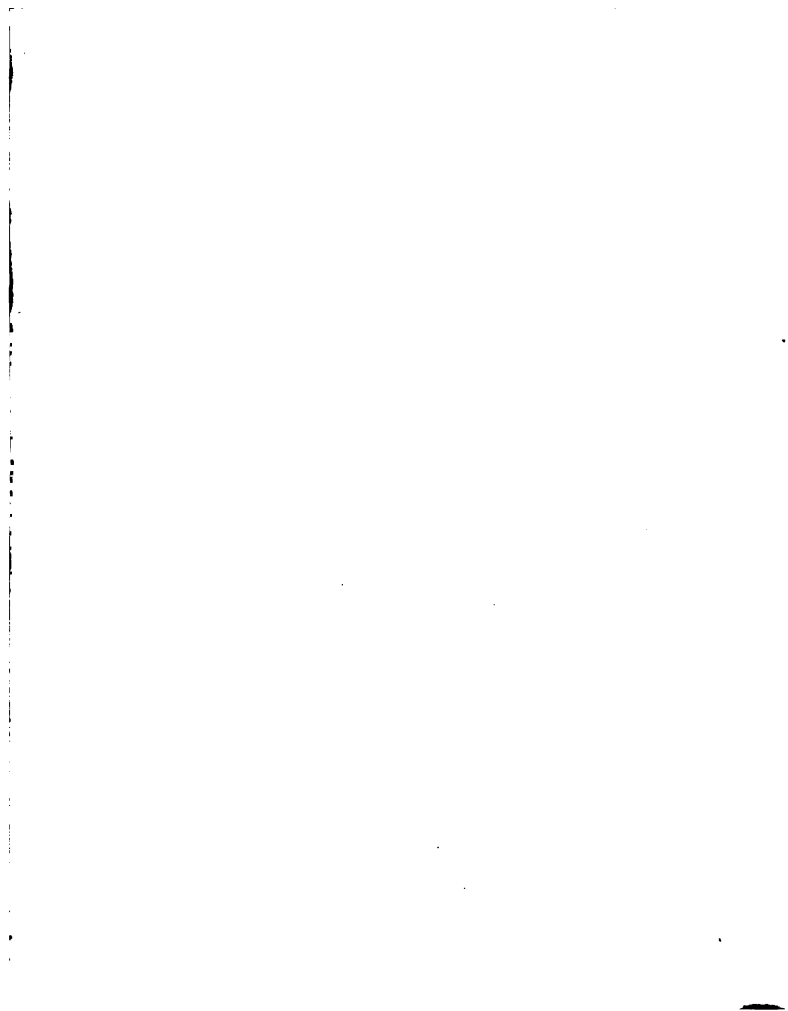
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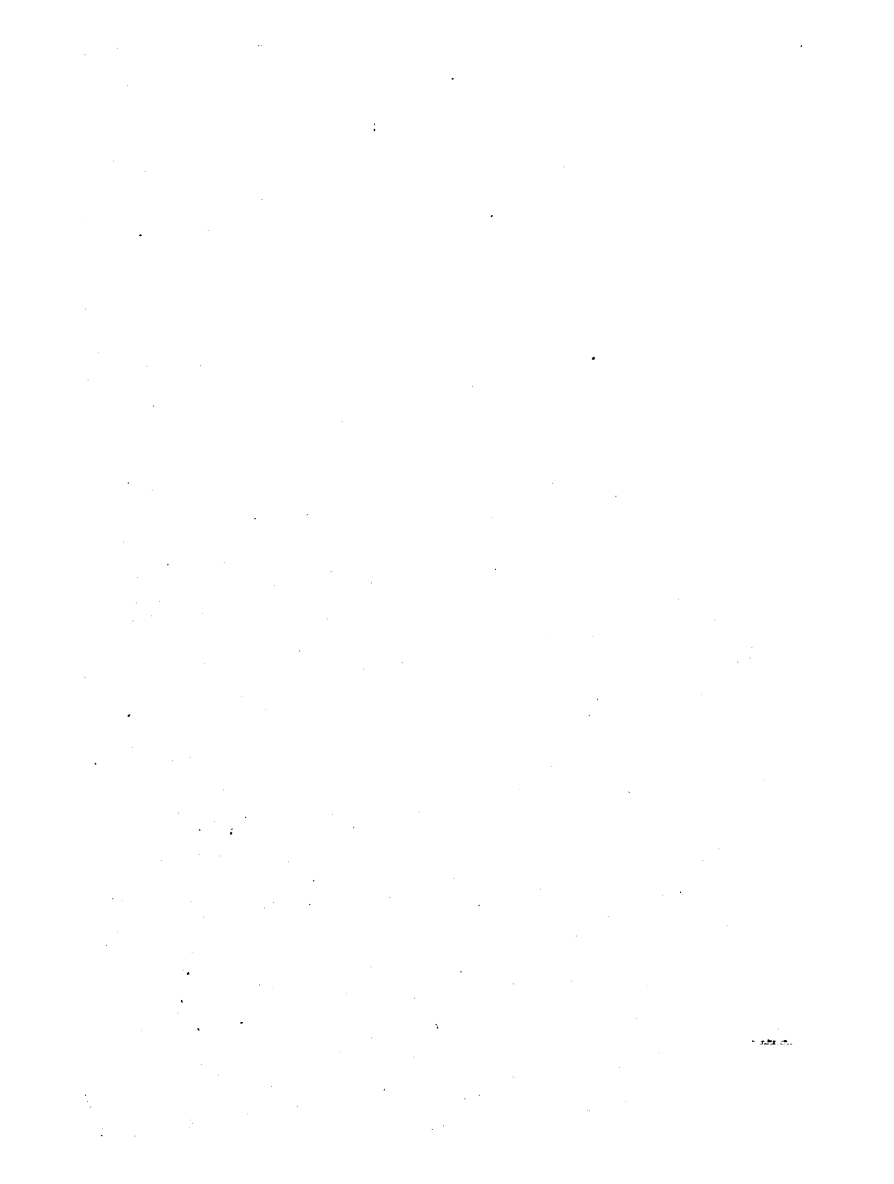
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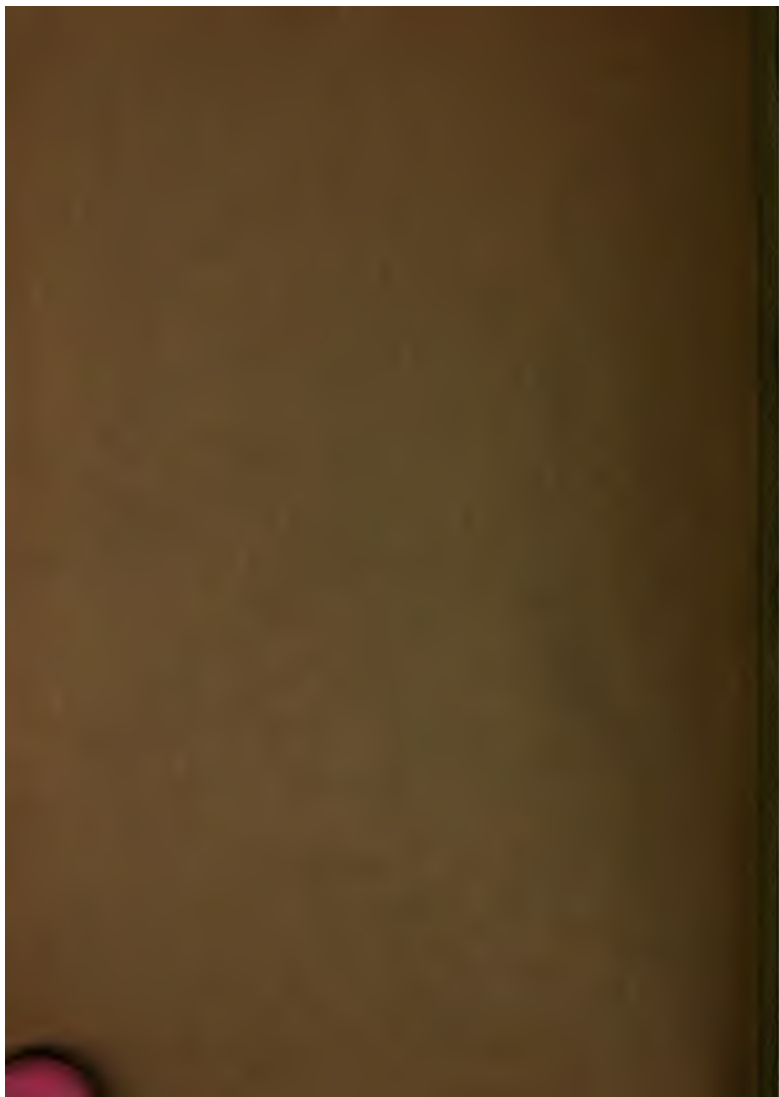
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